34394

National Library of Canada
Bibliothèque nationale du Canada

CANADIAN THESES ON MICROFICHE

THÈSES CANADIENNES SUR MICROFICHE

NAME OF AUTHOR/*NOM DE L'AUTEUR* GEORGE EDWARD KINGSTON

TITLE OF THESIS/*TITRE DE LA THÈSE* THE ORGANIZATION AND DEVELOPMENT OF ICE HOCKEY DURING CHILDHOOD IN THE SOVIET UNION, CZECHOSLOVAKIA, SWEDEN AND CANADA

UNIVERSITY/*UNIVERSITÉ* OF ALBERTA

DEGREE FOR WHICH THESIS WAS PRESENTED/ *GRADE POUR LEQUEL CETTE THÈSE FUT PRÉSENTÉE* DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

YEAR THIS DEGREE CONFERRED/*ANNÉE D'OBTENTION DE CE GRADE* 1977

NAME OF SUPERVISOR/*NOM DU DIRECTEUR DE THÈSE* DR HARVEY A. SCOTT

Permission is hereby granted to the NATIONAL LIBRARY OF CANADA to microfilm this thesis and to lend or sell copies of the film.

The author reserves other publication rights, and neither the thesis nor extensive extracts from it may be printed or otherwise reproduced without the author's written permission.

L'autorisation est, par la présente, accordée à la BIBLIOTHÈQUE NATIONALE DU CANADA de microfilmer cette thèse et de prêter ou de vendre des exemplaires du film.

L'auteur se réserve les autres droits de publication; ni la thèse ni de longs extraits de celle-ci ne doivent être imprimés ou autrement reproduits sans l'autorisation écrite de l'auteur.

DATED/*DATÉ* October 20, 1977 SIGNED/*SIGNÉ* G. E. Kingston

PERMANENT ADDRESS/*RÉSIDENCE FIXE*
1326-16 Street N.W.
Calgary Alberta
T2N 2C6

NL-91 (3-74)

National Library of Canada

Cataloguing Branch
Canadian Theses Division

Ottawa, Canada
K1A 0N4

Bibliothèque nationale du Canada

Direction du catalogage
Division des thèses canadiennes

NOTICE

The quality of this microfiche is heavily dependent upon the quality of the original thesis submitted for microfilming. Every effort has been made to ensure the highest quality of reproduction possible.

If pages are missing, contact the university which granted the degree.

Some pages may have indistinct print especially if the original pages were typed with a poor typewriter ribbon or if the university sent us a poor photocopy.

Previously copyrighted materials (journal articles, published tests, etc.) are not filmed.

Reproduction in full or in part of this film is governed by the Canadian Copyright Act, R.S.C. 1970, c. C-30. Please read the authorization forms which accompany this thesis.

THIS DISSERTATION
HAS BEEN MICROFILMED
EXACTLY AS RECEIVED

AVIS

La qualité de cette microfiche dépend grandement de la qualité de la thèse soumise au microfilmage. Nous avons tout fait pour assurer une qualité supérieure de reproduction.

S'il manque des pages, veuillez communiquer avec l'université qui a conféré le grade.

La qualité d'impression de certaines pages peut laisser à désirer, surtout si les pages originales ont été dactylographiées à l'aide d'un ruban usé ou si l'université nous a fait parvenir une photocopie de mauvaise qualité.

Les documents qui font déjà l'objet d'un droit d'auteur (articles de revue, examens publiés, etc.) ne sont pas microfilmés.

La reproduction, même partielle, de ce microfilm est soumise à la Loi canadienne sur le droit d'auteur, SRC 1970, c. C-30. Veuillez prendre connaissance des formules d'autorisation qui accompagnent cette thèse.

LA THÈSE A ÉTÉ
MICROFILMÉE TELLE QUE
NOUS L'AVONS REÇUE

NL-339 (3/77)

THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

THE ORGANIZATION AND DEVELOPMENT OF ICE HOCKEY DURING CHILDHOOD IN THE SOVIET UNION, CZECHOSLOVAKIA, SWEDEN AND CANADA

by

© GEORGE EDWARD KINGSTON

A THESIS
SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH
IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE
OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

DEPARTMENT OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION

EDMONTON, ALBERTA

FALL, 1977

THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research, for acceptance, a thesis entitled "The Organization and Development of Ice Hockey During Childhood in the Soviet Union, Czechoslovakia, Sweden and Canada" submitted by George E. Kingston in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Physical Education.

....
Supervisor

Harry Smith
....

Clare Drake
....

....

R. Macnab
....

....

....

....
External Examiner

Date June 17 / 77

to wendy, kevin and erin

ABSTRACT

The purpose of the study was to describe, analyze and compare the organization and development of ice hockey during childhood in the Soviet Union, Sweden, Czechoslovakia and Canada.

The method of research selected for the study involved a "problem approach" to comparative study (that is, comparison of the organization and development of ice hockey during childhood in the four countries), with an "area study" of the four selected countries (to provide descriptive and explanatory analysis of the problem), followed by "comparative study" based on the four discrete area studies (by juxtaposing, interpreting and comparing the descriptive materials in the area studies). The primary procedure employed to collect the data was direct observation of children's ice hockey programming in the four countries. In addition, the following procedures were employed: structured interviews with key ice hockey officials, based on the format outlined in the "Operational Framework for Analyzing the Organization and Development of Ice Hockey During Childhood in the Selected Countries," review of primary and secondary source material in all countries, and use of specially-designed questionnaires to key people working in ice hockey in Canada.

Each country, ice hockey system and development process seems to reflect the operation of a unique constellation of socio-cultural and ecological influences. Although the ice hockey systems share many commonalities in ideology and practice, each presents a

peculiar amalgam which highlights the differential operation of the various influences.

The most influential determinants impinging upon the organization and development of ice hockey during childhood are societal valuation, available resources and leadership.

The Swedish, Czechoslovakian and Soviet ice hockey systems seem to share more features with each other than they do with the Canadian ice hockey system. Key contrasts between the European nations and Canada seem to be evident in the different conceptualizations of the game of ice hockey and in the different theories or models for rationalizing the development process. With increased Canadian participation in international ice hockey competition there has been a discernible trend towards lessening the polarization and significance of the contrasts.

The development of elite ice hockey players receives priority in resource allocation in all four countries. This occurrence is assumed to make manifest the societal valuation, and also to signal the more vital role that elite development programming seems to fulfill in achieving instrumental ends when compared with mass participation programming.

Developing ice hockey players in Sweden appear to have a favorable opportunity to pursue ice hockey, supported by an encouraging valuation, a development program backed by considerable societal resource, and an approach to ice hockey which seems to emphasize individual technical competence, rational development through extensive training and serious pursuit of excellence.

Czechoslovakia, despite facing obstacles such as climate, limited availability of resources and relatively small numbers of ice hockey players, has remained competitive in international ice hockey competition. A large measure of this success seems to be based upon thorough, efficient and systematic development of available talent through concentration of resources upon elite stream athletes, systematic and pervasive leadership development and an overall rationalization of the development process.

The development process during childhood in the Soviet Union seems to be very restrictive and limited in opportunity, characterized by intensive training for promising players, and presumably urged into such circumstances by an overall lack of resources and an emerging state of development.

Canadian children participating in ice hockey seem favored by unparalleled resources and opportunities for participation or training in a differentiated development process primarily based upon a games-play model. Considerable experimentation, innovation and controversy have arisen recently, apparently encouraging considerable diversity in programming.

All four countries share in what seem to be significant and wide-ranging trends toward earlier identification, selection, specialization and training of prospective ice hockey players; an intensification of training and rationalization of the development process; and direction of more interest and attention towards the organization and development of children's ice hockey, apparently in the larger concern for effecting ultimate benefits in the international arena.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The writer wishes to acknowledge the assistance of a number of people who lent splendid assistance and support during various phases of the study.

Throughout the study the writer's family--Kevin, Erin, and especially Wendy--provided dimensions of inestimable support and assistance to which a simple expression of thanks and dedication seems pale.

The aid and abetment extended by committee chairman, Dr. Harvey Scott, and Department of Physical Education chairman, Dr. Gerry Glassford, in their tolerance and support through an atypical program of study is gratefully acknowledged.

The assistance of an interested and well-rounded committee: Dr. Harvey Scott, Dr. Gerry Glassford, Professor Clare Drake, Dr. Gary Smith, Dr. Ross McNab, Dr. Ann Hall, Dr. Metro Gulutsan, and external examiner Dr. Edmund Enos, Concordia University, is gratefully and respectfully acknowledged.

Special gratitude is extended to many persons who rendered major assistance worthy of specific mention: in Sweden, Mr. Kjell Larsson, Mr. Lennart Skördåker, Mr. Leif Boork, Mr. Tommy Sandlin and Mr. Stig Nilsson; in Czechoslovakia, Professor Luděk Bukač, Professor Vladimír Šifařík and Dean Vladimír Kostka, all from the Faculty of Physical Education and Sport, Charles University, Prague; in Canada, Mr. Dennis McDonald and Mr. Gordon Juckes from the Canadian Amateur Hockey Association, Mr. Ken McIntosh and numerous un-named others;

and with the Soviet Union, Professor Hart Cantelon, Queen's University and Dr. Edmund Enos, Concordia University.

Canada Council assistance in the form of a six-month Doctoral Fellowship contributed to the completion of the study.

Typing and editorial assistance by Wendy Kingston throughout the study and Marian Burke in the final copy merit special recognition.

Finally to the un-named others who assisted,

- THANK YOU.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Page

ABSTRACT v

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS ix

LIST OF TABLES xv

LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS xviii

CHAPTER

I. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM 1

Introduction 1

The Purpose of the Study 5

Definition and Explanation of Terms 5

Limitations and Delimitations of the Study 7

The Organization of the Study 17

Overview of the Literature 18

Methods and Procedures 20

Chapter I Footnotes 26

II. THE ORGANIZATION AND DEVELOPMENT OF ICE HOCKEY DURING CHILDHOOD IN SWEDEN 27

Introduction 27

General Outline of the Ice Hockey System of Sweden 33

The Elite Ice Hockey System 40

The Mass Ice Hockey Stream 55

Some Noteworthy Features in the Organization and Development of Ice Hockey in Sweden 56

Some Concluding Remarks 61

Chapter Page

Chapter II Footnotes 63

III. THE ORGANIZATION AND DEVELOPMENT OF ICE HOCKEY DURING CHILDHOOD IN CZECHOSLOVAKIA 69

Introduction 69

General Outline of the Ice Hockey System of Czechoslovakia 75

Elite Ice Hockey Stream 77

Mass Ice Hockey Stream 92

Some Noteworthy Features in the Organization and Development of Ice Hockey in Czechoslovakia . . . 93

Some Concluding Remarks 100

Chapter III Footnotes 101

IV. THE ORGANIZATION AND DEVELOPMENT OF ICE HOCKEY DURING CHILDHOOD IN THE SOVIET UNION 106

Introduction 106

General Outline of the Ice Hockey System in the Soviet Union 111

Elite Ice Hockey Stream 117

Mass Ice Hockey Stream 144

Some Noteworthy Features in the Organization and Development of Ice Hockey in the USSR 149

Some Concluding Remarks 157

Chapter IV Footnotes 159

V. THE ORGANIZATION AND DEVELOPMENT OF ICE HOCKEY DURING CHILDHOOD IN CANADA 175

Introduction 175

General Outline of Ice Hockey System of Canada . . . 176

Chapter Page

Elite Ice Hockey Stream 205

Mass Ice Hockey Stream 229

Some Noteworthy Features of the Canadian Ice Hockey System 230

Some Concluding Remarks 235

Chapter V Footnotes 237

VI. TOWARDS A SYNTHESIS OF THE ORGANIZATION AND DEVELOPMENT OF ICE HOCKEY DURING CHILDHOOD IN THE FOUR SELECTED COUNTRIES 252

Influences Upon the Organization and Development of Ice Hockey in the Selected Countries 252

General Outline of the Ice Hockey Systems 268

Elite Ice Hockey Stream 276

Mass Ice Hockey Stream 293

Some Noteworthy Features of the Four Ice Hockey Systems 298

Chapter VI Footnotes 303

VII. SOME CONCLUDING STATEMENTS 306

Some Recommendations for Further Study 309

BIBLIOGRAPHY 311

APPENDICES 320

A. TABLES OF OBSERVATION OF ICE HOCKEY SYSTEMS 321

B. QUESTIONNAIRE--THE DEVELOPMENT OF ICE HOCKEY DURING CHILDHOOD IN CANADA 323

Chapter Page

C. OPERATIONAL FRAMEWORK FOR JUXTAPOSING, ANALYZING AND COMPARING THE ORGANIZATION AND DEVELOPMENT OF ICE HOCKEY DURING CHILDHOOD IN THE SELECTED COUNTRIES 327

D. QUESTIONNAIRE--MINOR ICE HOCKEY FOR CHILDREN IN CANADA 330

LIST OF TABLES

Table — Page

2.1 Organization of Competition and Grouping in the Swedish Ice Hockey System 37

2.2 Dryland Training Program Content for Preparatory and Youngster Age Classifications in Swedish Ice Hockey 44

2.3 Ice Training Program Content for Preparatory and Youngster Age Classifications in Swedish Ice Hockey 45

2.4 Schedule of Training in the Swedish Ice Hockey System. 46

2.5 *Hammarby IFC* Boys Training Schedule, 1973-74 Season . 49

2.6 Frequency and Duration of Training Sessions; Number of Games; and Type of Competition Engaged in by *Ishockeyskölan*, D Boys and C Boys Age Classifications in Swedish Ice Hockey 50

3.1 Organization of Competition and Grouping in the Czechoslovakian Ice Hockey System 78

3.2 Structure of the Ice Hockey Section of *Sparta ČKD Praha* Sports Club and *Slavia Praha IPS* Sports Club 80

3.3 Schedule of Training in the Czechoslovakian Ice Hockey System 82

3.4 Dryland Training Program Content for Preparatory and Youngster Age Classifications in Czechoslovakian Ice Hockey 83

3.5 Ice Training Program Content for Preparatory and Youngster Age Classifications in Czechoslovakian Ice Hockey 84

3.6 Frequency of Training Sessions; Number of Games; and Type of Competition for Preparatory and Youngster Age Classifications in Czechoslovakian Ice Hockey 89

4.1 Structure of the Ice Hockey Section of the Central Army Sports Club (*TsSKA*) 121

Table Page

4.2 Structure of Competition Organized by the Leningrad Sports Committee (1974-75 Season) 123

4.3 Schedule of Training in the Soviet Ice Hockey System . 134

4.4.1 A General Outline of the Qualitative Content and Methodology for the Systematic Long-Range Development of Ice Hockey Players in the Soviet Union: Physical Preparation 135

4.4.2 A General Outline of the Qualitative Content and Methodology for the Systematic Long-Range Development of Ice Hockey Players in the Soviet Union: Technical Preparation 136

4.4.3 A General Outline of the Qualitative Content and Methodology for the Systematic Long-Range Development of Ice Hockey Players in the Soviet Union: Tactical Preparation 136

4.5 Frequency and Duration of Training Sessions; Number of Games; and Type and Extent of Competition in Children's Ice Hockey in the USSR 140

5.1 Canadian Amateur Hockey Association Branch Registration of Players for 1974-75 and 1975-76 Seasons . . 199

5.2 Organization of Competition in the Canadian Ice Hockey System 203

5.3 Seasonal Schedule for Professional Ice Hockey and Other Top Classifications in Canada 204

5.4 Seasonal Schedule for Minor Ice Hockey for Children in Canada 205

5.5 Structure of Typical Community-Sponsored Ice Hockey Programs in Calgary 207

5.6 Program Content for Ice Training for Minor Ice Hockey for Children in Canada 219

5.7 Percentage of Practice Time Provided to Selected Items during Tiny Mite Ice Hockey Practice Sessions, 1975-76 222

Table Page

5.8 Percentage of Practice Time Provided to Selected Items during Pee Wee Ice Hockey Practice Sessions; 1975-76 223

5.9 Number of Games; Number of Practices; Number of Contacts in Minor Ice Hockey in Canada; 1975-76 . . 225

5.10 Frequency and Duration of Training Sessions; Number of Games; and Type and Extent of Competition in Children's Ice Hockey in Canada 227

6.1 Number and Type of Artificial Ice Surfaces 267

6.2 Number of Ice Hockey Players and Population in Sweden, Czechoslovakia, the Soviet Union and Canada in 1974-75 272

LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS

Illustration Page

2.1 Organization of Sport and Ice Hockey in Sweden 29

2.2 The Organization of the Swedish Ice Hockey Federation 30

2.3 Organization of the Ice Hockey Section of *Brynäs IF* Sports Club 36

2.4 Estimated Profile of Participants in Swedish Ice Hockey System 39

2.5 *Hammarby IF* Yearly Program for *Ishockeyskölan*, D Boys and C Boys Teams 47

3.1 Organization of Sport and Ice Hockey in Czechoslovakia 73

3.2 Organization of the Czechoslovakian Ice Hockey Association 74

3.3 Estimated Profile of Participants in Czechoslovakian Ice Hockey System 76

4.1 Organization of Soviet Ice Hockey Federation 110

4.2 Ice Hockey System of the USSR 111

4.3 Estimated Profile of USSR Ice Hockey System 114

4.4 Estimated Profile of Elite Ice Hockey Stream and Junior Division in USSR 118

5.1 Organizational Structure of the Canadian Amateur Hockey Association 193

5.2 Estimated Profile of Canadian Ice Hockey System . . . 200

6.1 Estimated Profiles of Ice Hockey Systems in Four Countries 274

6.2 Estimated Profiles of Elite Ice Hockey Stream in Four Countries 276

CHAPTER I

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

> It matters little how wrong we are with our existing theories, if we are honest and careful with our observations.
>
> --William Beveridge[1]

INTRODUCTION

> Few hockey fans will ever forget the Canada-U.S.S.R. hockey series. . . . perhaps the most important result of the series was not our victory but the startling realization that hockey can be played--and played well--in many different ways by many different nations. What the series proved, more than anything else, was that there is no one best way to play hockey now and forever. Things change--we know more about hockey than we did 50 years ago, or 10 years ago, or last year. Styles and techniques that we once used have been modified or discarded.
>
> This development of hockey will continue--by us and by other countries--and the result will be an always improving game. We need to keep an open mind to new ideas and techniques, analyze them and have the willingness and the courage to experiment with them . . .[2]

Since the 1972 Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (U.S.S.R., Soviet Union)-Canada summit series, Canadians have come to regard the Soviet Union as something of a "Mecca" for ice hockey knowledge. International ice hockey, in the minds of typical Canadian ice hockey fans and media, tends to be perceived only as the showdown between Soviet and Canadian professional ice hockey teams. This view overlooks and does disservice to both the unparalleled growth of ice hockey in many other countries of the world and the noteworthy results which neophyte ice hockey-playing nations are achieving in international play.

In many countries the conversion to playing ice hockey has been relatively recent. In spite of this the standard of play rivals that of nations such as Canada where the long-established game of ice hockey is considered to be a national game. The Soviet Union, Sweden, Czechoslovakia, the United States of America, Finland, Poland and Canada (when entered) are usual contenders for the throne of international A class ice hockey supremacy. These nations annually vie for the World Championship and quadrennially for the Winter Olympic Championship. The initial competition for the Canada Cup brought together the top teams and top players of the six leading ice hockey-playing nations: Sweden, Finland, the Soviet Union, the United States, Czechoslovakia and Canada. This event and the apparent impression that the visiting teams left upon the Canadian ice hockey public (perhaps even the die-hard ethnocentrics) may bring a more enlightened realization that there are different approaches and solutions to playing the game of ice hockey. Czechoslovakia, Sweden and Finland will presumably be accorded more respect for the quality of play and player product of their respective ice hockey systems.

The entry dates into ice hockey competition for Czechoslovakia, 1908; Sweden, 1920; and the Soviet Union, 1932; are all indications of a much shorter playing history than Canada, 1850 (approximately). The emergence of these nations to prominence in ice hockey in a relatively short time period is assumed to be resultant--in significant measure--from the development process which exists in their ice hockey systems.

Canada, by virtue of geography, ethnocentricity and dogmatic support of professional ice hockey, has assumed a position of relative isolation from the developments occurring in international ice hockey. The European countries, in particular, engage in frequent competition and ice hockey exchange with the result that there is considerable cross-fertilization and diffusion of ideas and innovative change in their approach to the game. The European opinion as voiced by Tarasov[3] holds that the Canadian approach to ice hockey--as played by professional players--has not changed since the Soviets first observed the Canadian game in 1957. Tarasov stated further (regarding the professionals) " . . . that the isolationist mood was not justified and not conducive to the progress of the game,"[4] and that, " . . . ignoring the experience of the European teams . . . will produce sooner or later negative results" (for Canadian ice hockey itself and for the World Championships).[5]

The shock waves of the near loss by Canadian professional players to the U.S.S.R. National team in the 1972 summit series reverberated throughout Canadian ice hockey and political circles. Prior to the 1972 series there were a few voices of dissent on ice hockey developments in North America. The results of the series encouraged a groundswell of opinion which penetrated all facets of the North American ice hockey scene. This ushered in a period which has featured considerable introspection within Canadian ice hockey circles wherein a search for information and "answers," and considerable experimentation with ideas from other countries and from the North American "counter culture" has occurred.

The bodies responsible for the organization and administration of ice hockey in Canada--Hockey Canada and the Canadian Amateur Hockey Association (C.A.H.A.)--have sponsored travel by individuals or observer teams to study ice hockey in the Soviet Union. These well-intentioned forays have faced a number of difficulties which are seemingly inherent in attempts to study ice hockey in the U.S.S.R.; as a result the information currently available in Canada seems to be unsound in many respects. The problems extant in Canadian literature and opinion appear to be summarized in the phrases: lack of information; misinformation; fragmented, conflicting and contradictory information; selective perception of the observers; and lack of shared cultural viewpoints from which to place the information in an appropriate perspective.

The majority of reports on ice hockey in the U.S.S.R. have been impressions derived from short-term visits during which the primary focus was not concerned with the development process for children and youth. Most of the writers seem to have been concerned with only the top levels of ice hockey, so the development process seems to be relatively virgin territory.

There is an even greater paucity of information on childhood development in ice hockey in Czechoslovakia and Sweden. The single report located on Czechoslovakian hockey indicates the same acute problems as identified for knowledge about the development of children in the U.S.S.R. Canadian interest in Swedish ice hockey appears to be non-existent because no reports could be located by the writer.[6]

In short, there has been only an episodic interest by Canadians in discussing the topic of development in ice hockey during childhood in the other leading hockey-playing countries. The basis for our understanding of the development process in other countries does not appear to be very sound. In the writer's assessment there appears to be a need to study the development of ice hockey during childhood in more depth through a study which concentrates only on that topic.

THE PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study is to describe, analyze and compare the organization and development of ice hockey during childhood in the Soviet Union, Sweden, Czechoslovakia and Canada.

DEFINITION AND EXPLANATION OF TERMS

Throughout the study terms not defined in this section will be employed in the most appropriate sense as defined in *The Concise Oxford Dictionary of Current English.*[7]

The topic of the study--the organization and development of ice hockey during childhood--is operationally defined to denote the systematically or unsystematically planned development process through which a child, aged four to twelve years, progresses in the assimilation of the technical and tactical skills, knowledges and aspects of the game of ice hockey.

The concept, "technical skills and knowledges," refers to portions of the game which concern the skills and knowledges involved in the fundamental or basic skills of skating, puck control (which may be sub-divided into stick-handling, passing, pass receiving and shooting), checking and goalkeeper play.

The concept, "tactical skills and knowledges," refers to portions of the game which concern the skills and knowledges involved in common situations and player relationships involving the individual player, his team-mates and opponents; and the possibilities of strategy inherent in all phases of the game of ice hockey.

Minor ice hockey is a phrase which refers to all levels of amateur ice hockey in Canada which deal with programming for childhood and youth age groupings.

The term, "trainer," will be employed in the study in the European manner; that is, to designate the person who is a coach or teacher of a sport or physical activity. It should be noted that, although European hockey trainers appear to be synonymous with our ice hockey coaches, there are differences, particularly in the elite stream of ice hockey in the Socialist countries, where more educational and practicum training (up to five years) is required before a trainer may teach or coach ice hockey.

The phrase, "socialist countries," will be operationally employed in this study to refer to Czechoslovakia (Czechoslovak Socialist Republic, C.S.S.R.), and the Soviet Union (Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, U.S.S.R.). The rationale for this operational definition rests primarily upon the practical reason that the two aforementioned countries choose to call themselves "socialist countries" (rather than Communist countries as they tend to be labelled in the North American media and everyday use). Sweden, although until very recently governed by a socialist political party which introduced many programs based upon egalitarian ideals and government involvement and direction similar to those programs in action in Czechoslovakia and the Soviet Union, is not defined as a socialist country. The points of intervention and control undertaken by the central government authorities in Czechoslovakia and the Soviet Union are much greater than the state intervention and control present in Sweden and Canada, which may be operationally labelled as "mixed" and "free market" economies, respectively.

LIMITATIONS AND DELIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Limitations

The lack of written material on the topic of the study presents a major limitation for the verification of the data collected during this study. There is a paucity of accounts dealing with the development of ice hockey during childhood in the various countries. Where accounts do exist they tend to focus on wider and/or different concerns, such as; the top level of ice hockey played in the respective countries or a general treatment of various features, or specific foci, such as the training and conditioning of ice hockey players. For the most part, referances to practices in the childhood years are generally incidental to the central concerns of the accounts.

Related to this lack of information is a concern for the reliability of the extant literature. The majority of previous accounts tend to be fragmented, episodic and out-of-date. Furthermore, they tend to be based upon sporadic, isolated and short-term observations which embrace further methodological concerns. These concerns are based upon the lack of documentation and narrow, frequently specially show-cased, sampling; the qualities of the reporter, such as a lack of shared cultural perspective with the country and program observed so that culture-boundedness and ethnocentricity may be in operation; and conduct of the study by individuals who are more interested in other concerns so that selective perception may influence the observations.

The knowledge screen created by the selective release of information seems to be a phenomenon peculiar to attempts to study in the Soviet Union. At times the researcher appears to run into a deliberate attempt by Soviet authorities to obfuscate information. One naturally encounters difficulties in the translation and interpretation of information, the lack of shared cultural perspective and the resultant selective perception; however, the selective release of information and the apparent obfuscation from Soviet sources combine to create an international screen which severely curtails the confidence which may be placed in the state of Canadian knowledge about the ice hockey system of the U.S.S.R. Knowledge about Soviet developments, including ice hockey, must be placed within the prescriptions of the following comments by Dornberg, regarding journalistic and diplomatic endeavor.

> Analyses of developments and interpretation of Soviet positions are pregnant with error. To predict borders on the irresponsible. . . . Proving anything in Moscow is next to impossible. Anyone who claims to know something with certainty is either lying to himself or trying to fool his editors or government. At best he can say with reasonable certainty what he does *not* know.[8]

The co-operation of Soviet ice hockey authorities appears to be stymied by the following factors: the bureaucratic structure of Soviet society and sporting endeavor; the intense rivalry among the leading ice hockey-playing countries (U.S.S.R., Czechoslovia, Sweden, Finland, the United States and Canada) and the resultant importance of withholding information from competitors; the culture boundedness; and the uneven state of development and resource allocation provided for ice hockey in the Soviet Union. The aforementioned specific difficulties are in addition to the travel, time limit and interaction and access restrictions which face any visitor to the U.S.S.R. The difficulties which surround the efforts of any foreigner regardless of whether he is a journalist, student, diplomat or tourist are well-documented in the writings of Smith,[9] Feifer[10] and Dornberg.[11]

Whereas key Soviet ice hockey officials from the Soviet Ice Hockey Federation were not in a position to co-operate, the co-operation and assistance rendered by key officials from the Swedish and Czechoslovakian Ice Hockey Federations provided a pleasant and sharp contrast. Swedish and Czechoslovakian officials were, in all respects, co-operative, accessible and at pains to be of assistance. The writer maintains, therefore, that more confidence may be placed in the data collected in Sweden and Czechoslovakia than in the Soviet data. The increased reliability may be seen to apply to the generalizations derived from observations of practices and programs, the discussions and interviews with knowledgeable ice hockey officials, and the theoretical material consulted in preparing the paper.

Bereday cites three prerequisites that a researcher should build into his preparation for undertaking comparative research (in education). They are:

> . . . a knowledge of the language of the area under study, residence abroad, and a never-ceasing watchfulness by the observer to control his own cultural and personal biases.[12]

The writer lacks a sufficient grasp of the foreign languages involved to explore whether there are primary, secondary and auxiliary sources of literature which would significantly alter the interpretation of the data collected and perspective surrounding the problem studied in the U.S.S.R., Sweden and Czechoslovakia. Attempts have been made to procure all written material which hockey authorities in the three European countries have advised to be relevant; very little, however, was recommended, as the problem for this study tends to be rooted more in practice than in the literature. The use of interpreters during interviews and meetings, foreign language lexicons to plod through collected material, and translation services for documents perceived to be very relevant to the study are measures which were employed in an attempt to overcome the foreign language deficiency.

The other prerequisites cited by Bereday were more closely approximated. The writer has lived and studied ice hockey and sport in the Soviet Union for over three and one-half months, in Sweden for over four months, and in Czechoslovakia for over two months. In all instances the residence periods were filled with rather intensive and useful study experiences. A longer period of investigation would provide a sounder base to the study because more penetration and widespread investigation of the problem would be afforded. Concern with this limitation is alleviated somewhat by the long-term monitoring of the topic carried out by the writer and by the fact that multiple observations of development practices tended to become redundant and reasonably stereotyped. Variations in practice and information became relatively minor and seemed to point towards affording a reasonable degree of confidence in the knowledge of the problem. In this regard a schedule of observations is included in tables in Appendix A so the reader may assess the degree of penetration by the writer into the respective ice hockey systems.

Valuation bias, culture boundedness, selective perception and lack of shared cultural perspectives comprise serious limitations upon a researcher in the field of international and comparative study. The valuation bias of the writer has been formed mainly through contact with the North American valuation process, although this culture boundedness is tempered in some degree by study and travel for nearly one and two-thirds years in other countries of the world. In specific the writer's valuation bias emanates from being a product of the Canadian social system--and ice hockey system--and from having less experience with other social systems and ice hockey systems than with his own. The reader will no doubt detect the valuation bias built into the study by the selective perception which, for example, dictates the writer's interest in the problem, the questions asked, the emphasis given to certain aspects of the study, and the generalizations, conclusions and study recommendations drawn. The interest in undertaking the study originated from a desire to investigate other cultures, and more specifically, to study the respective sport and ice hockey systems of the selected countries. Such investigation and the attempt to immerse oneself in other cultures may hopefully remove some culture boundedness and ethnocentricism so that viewpoints held by the author will be tempered by this experience. It would seem that a wider experiential background in other cultures and ice hockey systems would be a sound way of at least recognizing existing valuation premises. Fundamental to the conduct of the study is the recognition that before there can be a view, there must be a viewpoint. It is hoped that the writer's experiences and sincere attempts to approach the ideals of tolerance and magnanimity will reduce the importance and influence of the limitation brought about by valuation bias, culture boundedness, selective perception and lack of shared cultural perspectives.

The nature of the study, which relies upon status description of aspects of the development programs and process in the respective countries, tends to alleviate concern for an undue influence of the cultural filter in the dimensions of ethnocentricity and culture boundedness. There are certain constants or universals in the game of ice hockey, such as technical skills like skating and the other fundamentals, which may be observed without any apparent relationship to valuation bias. On the other hand other aspects of the development process which involve, for example, methodological and philosophical concerns, may be areas wherein the valuation bias could function; the main thrust of the study, however, is not concerned with establishing the right, proper or correct development program and process. Selective perception is in operation through the establishment of the problem and the methods and procedures for conducting the study, but it is hoped that the viewpoint of the study is based upon a rational approach which other investigators would select in order to complete the same type of study.

Mention was previously made of the desirability of travelling more extensively and spending more time studying development in ice hockey in the selected countries. There appear to be national practices extant, although these must not be viewed as being monolithic and uniformly developed and applied in the four countires. Rural-urban; power center-hinterland-outback; regional, district, city and community or individual sports club differences provide rich sources of variation within the countries selected for study. In spite of this variation the study treats the data as if there were national practices which are typical and representative of the development of ice hockey in each of the four countries. The data collection process attempts to sample and document data in a manner which accounts for the variation and allows, wherever possible, some statement concerning representative and typical national practice. Nevertheless the reader should keep this variation in mind when assessing the study.

The Soviet Ice Hockey Federation has produced, and the Czechoslovakian Ice Hockey Federation is scheduled to produce a curriculum guide or program outline which is designed to be applied throughout the respective countries. Despite the availability of such guides (although not to the author), variation seems prevalent and seems to illustrate the gap between theory and practice and ideal and actual which occurs in all of the countries. This source of variation should also be borne in mind in spite of an attempt to consider different points of intervention into the development program and process in ice hockey.

Delimitations

The complete development process for ice hockey players is not being considered. Rather the study is delimited to cover male children from ages four to twelve years. These childhood years were selected for the following reasons:

1. Four years of age was selected because it appears to be the earliest entry age for children into ice hockey; while twelve years of age was selected as the upper limit for two reasons. In the first instance, twelve years of age marks the upper limit of childhood or the usual limit of pre-pubescence. Secondly, and more importantly, observation of ice hockey programs seemed to indicate

that commencing at age thirteen years the youth embarked upon heavier and more serious training and conditioning regimens.

2. The ages four to twelve years embrace the time period during which most of the basics of the technical skills in ice hockey are taught to children, and this occurrence comprises a particular professional interest of the writer.

Only four of the leading ice hockey-playing nations have been selected for analysis in the paper. The rationale for the selection of the Soviet Union, Czechoslovakia, and Sweden is their consistent placement as the three leading countries in international ice hockey competition and the underlying assumption that their success is in part the result of their development program and process. Canada has been selected because of the international reputation she enjoys as a premier ice hockey-playing country. A second reason for selecting Canada is related to the origin of the writer and study. Finland also merits consideration as a result of her placement in international competition; the writer chose, however, to concentrate his time and travel resources upon only four leading hockey-playing countries.

Within the three European nations only certain selected development programs of a representative nature have been examined. The selection was necessitated because time and travel resources would not allow a longer and more extensive study period. These programs have been selected to accommodate the variations discussed in the previous section on "Limitations," and to facilitate generalizations about representative and typical development programming. Wherever possible, exemplary development programs were selected as the sample for the study through criteria of model leadership, model programming, reputation, recommendation and results. Other programs which do not meet the above criteria, but which provide a perspective to the range of programming within a country were also studied to elucidate the variations previously discussed.

The time period for conducting the data collection was mainly during the 1974-75 ice hockey season, although other periods of travel and observation (1971, 1972, 1976) have been employed to supplement the main study period.

Information about the Soviet Union was derived primarily from investigation conducted in Moscow, Leningrad and Smolensk, so generalization beyond the centers cited is of questionable value. In Czechoslovakia, Prague, Kolin, Kladno and some smaller centers of population were the primary locations for study so generalization will be reflective of these locations. The observation of ice hockey development programs in Sweden included Malmö, Göteborg, Stockholm, Gävle, Leksand, Sandvik and smaller centers of population in the hinterland of the named centers. Generalization beyond the above-named centers would seem inappropriate. The information on Canada was based on data accumulated through personal involvement with minor ice hockey in Canada since 1962. A specially-constructed questionnaire was circulated across Canada in an attempt to glean a national perspective to the problem of the study, but the direct observation of Canadian practice was limited to the province of Alberta.

P

Generalization of the results must therefore be tempered.

THE ORGANIZATION OF THE STUDY

The introductory chapter serves to introduce the problem, to state the problem, to state the purpose, limitations, delimitations and organization of the study and to define and explain significant concepts to be employed in the study. In addition, a brief overview of the literature and statement of methods and procedures to be used in the study is included in the first chapter. A more germane consideration of the literature occurs when the area studies on each country are developed in the body of the study.

Chapters II through V consider the organization and development in ice hockey during childhood in each of the four countries: Sweden, Czechoslovakia, U.S.S.R. and Canada, respectively. Each chapter presents a discrete area study of the significant features of development in ice hockey in the country in order to set the stage for Chapter VI, a synthesis of the four area studies.

Juxtaposition, interpretation and comparison, which highlights similarities and differences present in the development of ice hockey during childhood in the four selected countries, constitutes the full elaboration of the synthesis attempted in Chaper VI.

Chapter VII, the final chapter, presents some considerations regarding conclusions for the study and recommendations for further study.

OVERVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

During the period of data collection the writer had the opportunity to visit with a number of European ice hockey trainers and officials. Many of their offices or work/study areas contained a number of North American, English-language ice hockey books, as well as a significant number of ice hockey books in their native languages. The number of books, and the topics covered in the books and monographs, were a revelation. Although most of their books were concerned with technique, as are North American ice hockey books, it was noteworthy that others dealt with topics such as strategy, systemic situational and team play, training for ice hockey, and so on--topics which are largely unexplored in North American ice hockey literature. The extent and the depth of treatment given to topics in the hockey literature in Czechoslovakia in particular would appear to be far superior to that of any other country in the hockey-playing realm.

In both socialist countries, the Soviet Union and Czechoslovakia, the state undertakes central planning of sporting endeavor, so curriculum guides or program outlines have been produced for use by trainers working at the various age levels or stages of hockey. In the U.S.S.R., the publishing houses produce a single printing of a fixed, but very limited number of copies of each publication. The demand for worthwhile books or printed material apparently far exceeds the production, so copies of publications such as the *Hockey Program for Children's-Youth's Sports*

Schools,[13] are scarce even before, or if, they are circulated. Many leading authorities in Soviet hockey consider themselves very fortunate to have a copy of any material which is published concerning ice hockey.

The situation in Czechoslovakia is in no way as acute for sports leaders trying to obtain published material. One of the strongest impressions one carries away from contact with Czechoslovakian sports officials and trainers is their concern for organization and control of the situation. Many books by leading Czechoslovakian ice hockey authorities are available to trainers. It is understood, based on Czechoslovakian sources, that a book entitled, *Unified Training System for Ice Hockey*,[14] was to be published sometime in 1976. This book was projected to become the curriculum guide or methodological outline for all levels of hockey in Czechoslovakia. Both program guides would be very useful to set alongside personal observations to relate theory with practice.

Neither Sweden nor Canada has any book or manual which could be considered as a curriculum guide or program for hockey development. Canada, through the recent publications produced by the Canadian Amateur Hockey Association,[15] initiated material which will, if widely accepted, serve in the same capacity as the curriculum guides which Czechoslovakia and the U.S.S.R. employ. A key difference remains, though, because the CAHA publications are not designed as a universal guideline which embraces the complete development of players.

In each of the countries there are publications which relate to hockey development in the childhood time period. These publications deal almost without exception with fundamental technical skills and low-order tactical skills and knowledges. It is interesting to note the borrowing or cultural diffusion occurring in the literature, wherein the same format and diagrams often crop up in different countries. In addition, some books such as *Tarasov's Hockey Technique*[16] have been translated into different languages (English and Swedish).

When all the factors, those elucidated in the "Limitations" section of this paper and those discussed in this overview, are considered, there is not a great deal of relevant literature available to corroborate the practices described in the development programs and features. It would seem that this lack might be explained by the lag which occurs in many instances before practice is chronicled and circulated through the written medium. Secondly, many aspects of current practice are treated as assumptions by the practising nation and as such are not converted into written format. When, and if, written accounts are generated, they tend to be quite general and wide-ranging unless there is a very special feature which is considered unique and noteworthy. The third and perhaps most pivotal reason is that the practitioners engage in practice and do not have the time or inclination to publicize their endeavors.

Evidently, there are only a limited number of reports which have been generated by Canadians who have travelled to observe aspects of the ice hockey system of the U.S.S.R. The Can-Am group published a general summary of the 1974 Concordia University Bio-Physical Education course on "The Organization and Development of Ice Hockey in the U.S.S.R."[17] Their report provides scanty reference to children's hockey and appears to be handicapped by the selective release of information by Soviet authorities.

A summary of the 1975 Concordia University course[18] seems to suffer from the same limitation although there are some new items which clarify the development concern.

McDonald and a group of Canadian ice hockey authorities visited the Soviet Union and Czechoslovakia in 1973 and produced a monograph which summarized their observations of ice hockey in the two countries.[19] This brief report appears to be one of the earliest definitive statements on children's hockey development in the two countries.

These latter three references parallel the type of study design which has been undertaken and although they provide only brief consideration of the problem considered in this study, they are useful to the development of the area studies of the U.S.S.R. and Czechoslovakia.

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

The method of research selected for this study involves a "problem approach" to comparative study; with an "area study" of the four selected countries, followed by "comparative study" based on the four countries.[20] The foregoing precis may be elaborated in the following manner: the problem for the study is the organization and development of ice hockey during childhood in the four selected countries; area studies of Sweden, Czechoslovakia, the Soviet Union, and Canada are employed to provide descriptive and explanatory analysis of the problem cited above (these area studies are presented as was outlined in the "Organization of the Study" section of this chapter); comparative study involving juxtaposition, interpretation and comparison is employed to order, evaluate and highlight the materials previously processed within the four discrete area studies.

The procedures employed to collect the data include a variety of measures. The primary procedure was direct observation of ice hockey programming for children (and other age groups in order to provide a perspective of the total range of programming) as tabulated in Appendix A. This procedure was employed to generate the data for the three European countries and was completed through nine and one-half months of direct experience with the three ice hockey systems. Nearly four months of study in Sweden and four in the Soviet Union were combined with two months of study in Czechoslovakia to collect data. The program observation in Canada occurred in the 1973-74, 1975-76 and 1976-77 ice hockey seasons and includes the observations outlined in Appendix A.

Structured interviews with trainers (coaches and teachers of children's ice hockey), program leaders, authorities on child and youth development, leaders of sports clubs, and officials of ice hockey associations and national federations in each of the countries selected for inclusion in the study has also been an important source for the data on the organization and development of ice hockey during childhood. The structured interview format varied according to the person interviewed but the overall guidelines for the information sought via this procedure were embraced within the concerns outlined in the "Operational Framework for Analyzing the Organization and Development of Ice Hockey During Childhood in the Selected Countries" (Appendix C).

Informal discussions, interviews and meetings, wherein an abridged or modified application of the structured interview was utilized, have been pursued with trainers, program leaders, authorities on child and youth development, leaders of sports clubs, authorities on ice hockey; and with officials and knowledgeable others such as participants, parents and journalists. Discussions and structured interviews with international ice hockey authorities have also been utilized to complete the perspective surrounding the direct observation of programs for children (and others in older age groups).

The vista on ice hockey organization and development has been enhanced by participation in seminars, trainers' meetings and international ice hockey symposia which included material on children's and youth programming and other relevant features. In specific, invaluable insights were derived through participation in the 1975 and 1976 Concordia University Seminars on Ice Hockey in the U.S.S.R., and Seminars on Sport and Physical Culture in the U.S.S.R., which are conducted under the auspices of the U.S.S.R.-Canada Cultural Exchange Program.

A review of the limited source material from Canadian ice hockey authorities who have travelled and studied in the selected European countries and have subsequently chronicled their observations has been an important yardstick to measure the information collected through the route of direct observation, structured interview and so on. In addition, a review of pertinent literature as is routinely undertaken in major scholarly papers has been completed to bring additional information to the study. Another source of information has been the viewing of Canadian, American, Swedish, German, Czechoslovakian and Soviet television programs which were concerned with ice hockey in the four countries studied in the paper.

The Canadian situation has been studied through the use of a specially-designed questionnaire which was circulated to the Minor Hockey Council Members and Technical Directors of the twelve branches of the Canadian Amateur Hockey Association. The questionnaire is contained in Appendix B. Structured interviews, informal discussions, and participation in Canadian symposia on ice hockey and children in sport and physical activity were also sources for the data on the Canadian situation. Direct observation of children's programs has also been undertaken as outlined in tabular form in Appendix A. The observations were completed in three ice hockey seasons; 1973-74, 1975-76, and 1976-77, and were designed to parallel the observation completed in the three European countries. To back up the direct observation of minor ice hockey programming in Canada, a second specially-designed questionnaire was circulated to coaches working with children in Calgary. The questionnaire is contained in

Appendix D.

An underpinning to the complete study has been provided through personal involvement in Canadian minor ice hockey and monitoring of Canadian and international ice hockey developments since 1962.

In order to improve the reliability of the information gleaned from the preceding procedures and to overcome in particular the difficulty of the writer being a participant-observer in the Canadian hockey environment, the writer has undertaken to cross-reference all information. The information processed in the four area studies on the selected countries has all been scrutinized through a fairly rigorous cross-examination process which has involved soliciting a variety of viewpoints from individuals who have different points of intervention into the ice hockey milieu; sampling a variety of programs and practices in the countries examined; distributing rough draft write-ups on each area study to knowledgeable ice hockey authorities in the particular countries with the request to respond to the draft with comments and corrections to improve any faulty, biased or incomplete information; and through presentation of the material contained in the area studies to international ice hockey symposia in Sweden and the U.S.S.R., and a national seminar in Canada with the request that audiences provide comments and corrections to improve any faulty, biased or incomplete information.

CHAPTER I FOOTNOTES

[1] William Beveridge, in his farewell address as Director of the London School of Economics, June 24, 1937.

[2] Ken Dryden, Cecil Eaves and John Macfarlane, *Let's Play Better Hockey* (Toronto: Prosport Productions Ltd., 1973).

[3] Anatoli Tarasov, former coach of the U.S.S.R. National Team, Remarks in lecture to 1976 Hockey Specialists' Group, Concordia University Course: Bio-P.E. 620Z--Physical Education and Sport in the U.S.S.R. Lecture subject: "Comparison of Canadian and Soviet Hockey," Moscow, June 7, 1976.

[4] Vladimir Kirillyuk, "Ice Hockey Summit: The Games Were Great," *Soviet Union Today*, Ottawa: The U.S.S.R. Embassy in Canada (December, 1972), p. 40.

[5] Vladimir Kirillyuk, "Games All Look Forward To," *Soviet Union Today*, Ottawa: The U.S.S.R. Embassy in Canada (August, 1972), p. 43.

[6] Note that the publication, *Let's Play Better Hockey*, by Ken Dryden, Cecil Eaves and John Macfarlane discusses some general aspects regarding the training of young players and the development of technical skills in children and youth in the four countries considered in this study. The treatment is mainly designed to feature some desirable practices which would facilitate better hockey. To this end the authors use photographs of children and youth from all four countries to illustrate desirable practices. Ken Dryden, op. cit.

[7] H. W. Fowler and F. G. Fowler (eds.), *The Concise Oxford Dictionary of Current English* (4th ed.; Oxford: The University Press, 1958).

[8] John Dornberg, *The New Tsars* (Garden City, New York: Doubleday and Co., Inc., 1972), p. 16.

[9] Hedrick Smith, *The Russians* (New York: Quadrangle/The New York Times Book Co., 1976), pp. 344-74.

[10] George Feifer, *Our Motherland: and Other Ventures in Russian Reportage* (New York: The Viking Press, 1974), pp. 9-39.

[11] Dornberg, op. cit., pp. 7-30.

[12] George Bereday, *Comparative Method in Education* (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1964), p. 10.

[13] Methodology Cabinet, Central Committee on Physical Culture and Sport attached to the Council of Ministers of the U.S.S.R., *Hockey Programs for Children's-Youth's Sports Schools* (Moscow: Methodology Cabinet, 1971).

[14] *ČSTV*, "Unified System for Ice Hockey," (Prague: *ČSTV*, in press, 1976).

[15] John Almstead, *Hockey Development Guide: 8 to 18* (Ottawa: Canadian Amateur Hockey Association, 1973); Georges Lariviere, *Hockey Beginner's Program* (Ottawa: Canadian Amateur Hockey Association, 1973); Buck Matiowski, *Dynamic Skating* (Ottawa: Canadian Amateur Hockey Association, 1973).

[16] Anatoli Tarasov, *Tarasov's Hockey Technique* (Toronto: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1974).

[17] Can-Am Group, "The Organization and Development of Ice Hockey in the U.S.S.R." (Guelph: Can-Am Group, 1974) (Mimeographed).

[18] Concordia University, "Summary Notes from Lectures of 1975 Bio-P.E. 620Z Course: Sport, Physical Culture and Ice Hockey in the U.S.S.R." (Montreal: Concordia University, 1975) (Mimeographed).

[19] Dennis McDonald (ed.), "Youth Development in the Soviet Union and Czechoslovakia" (Ottawa: Canadian Amateur Hockey Association, 1973) (Mimeographed).

[20] Bereday, op. cit.

CHAPTER II

THE ORGANIZATION AND DEVELOPMENT OF ICE HOCKEY DURING CHILDHOOD IN SWEDEN

INTRODUCTION

The interest in ice hockey within Sweden currently appears to be very high. Although the population of Sweden in 1974-75 was slightly over 8,000,000, there were apparently 200,000 or more active participants in ice hockey.[1] Ice hockey ranks second only to football in participant numbers, but in terms of media coverage, ice hockey leads all sports.

In recent years ice hockey has grown to such an extent, when measured in terms of commercial entertainment, that participants may, in increasing numbers, pursue ice hockey playing as a specialty occupation and derive a significant portion of their income from playing ice hockey.[2] Ice hockey in Sweden appears to be on the threshold of adding professionalism to the commercialization which normally occurs in the massification of sport.

Considerable resource--measured in terms of financial resources for construction, maintenance and programming of facilities, the time and effort of the volunteer members of sports clubs which sponsor ice hockey, the time and effort of the legion of voluntary officials who function within the various levels of the Swedish ice hockey system, and the functioning of the *Svenska Ishockeyförbundet*--

Swedish Ice Hockey Federation --is directed towards ice hockey.

Participation in sport and physical activity seems to be an important value within the Swedish social system. The objective of sports participation is summarized in the following pronouncement by the Swedish Sports Federation.

> The purpose of voluntary sports activities in Sweden is to provide more opportunity for more people--men and women, young and old--to take part in a healthy, leisure-time activity, to combine health and recreation, to keep alive the motto, "Once a sportsman, always a sportsman."[3]

Participation in physical activity and sporting endeavor is encouraged by financial support from the Swedish government. The *Riksidrottsförbundet (RF)*, The National Alliance of Swedish Sports Federations (SSF), receives funding from the government to organize and administer sporting endeavor in Sweden. This alliance is built upon the member federations, associations and clubs from the various sports in Sweden. The funding is distributed to twenty-three district *RF* organizations and fifty-four sports governing organizations, one of which is the Swedish Ice Hockey Federation. The budget is directed towards programs for preventative health care, leadership training, administration, support of the *Idrotts at Allå* (Sports for All) program and elite sports programs, including ice hockey.[4] The following statement summarizes the rationale for supporting Swedish sport.

> Experience has taught us that a wide popular basis for sport is necessary if an elite is to rise and succeed in today's keen competition. Likewise success in international events is the best propaganda for more public participation in sport and different forms of open-air activities. For that reason the SSF tries to help both types of sport by giving member organizations grants for administration, and for training leaders and instructors for national and international competition.[5]

The Swedish Ice Hockey Federation is the governing body for ice hockey in Sweden and as such receives funding to organize and administer elite ice hockey in Sweden, to generate leadership and player development programs and to create and finance representative teams for international competition.[6] The organization of sport generally, and ice hockey specifically, may be illustrated as follows:

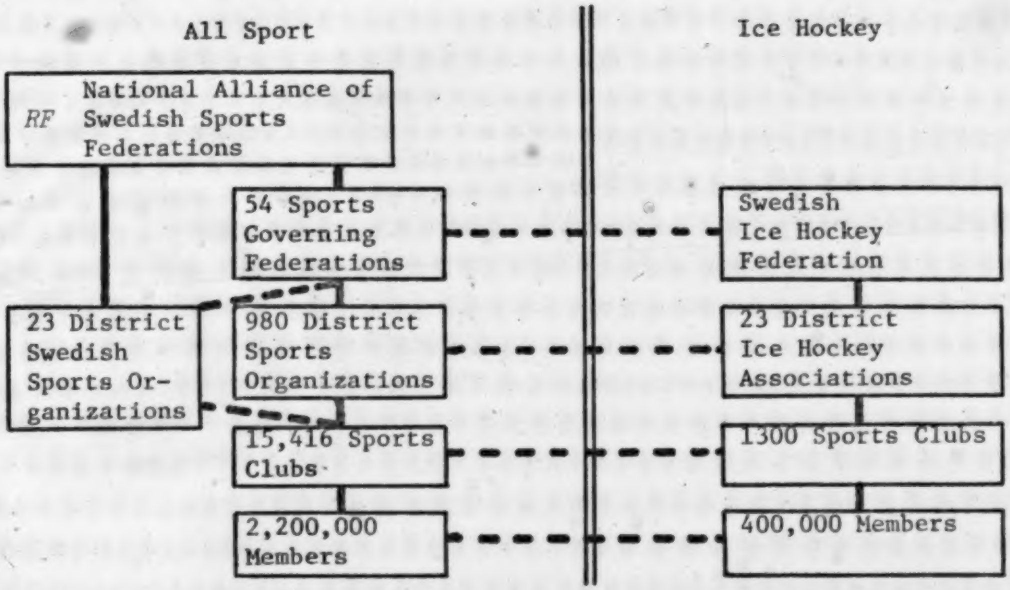

All Sport
Ice Hockey
RF
National Alliance of Swedish Sports Federations
54 Sports Governing Federations
Swedish Ice Hockey Federation
23 District Swedish Sports Organizations
980 District Sports Organizations
23 District Ice Hockey Associations
15,416 Sports Clubs
1300 Sports Clubs
2,200,000 Members
400,000 Members

Illustration 2.1

Organization of Sport and Ice Hockey in Sweden[9]

The internal organization of the Swedish Ice Hockey Federation is presented in Illustration 2.2.

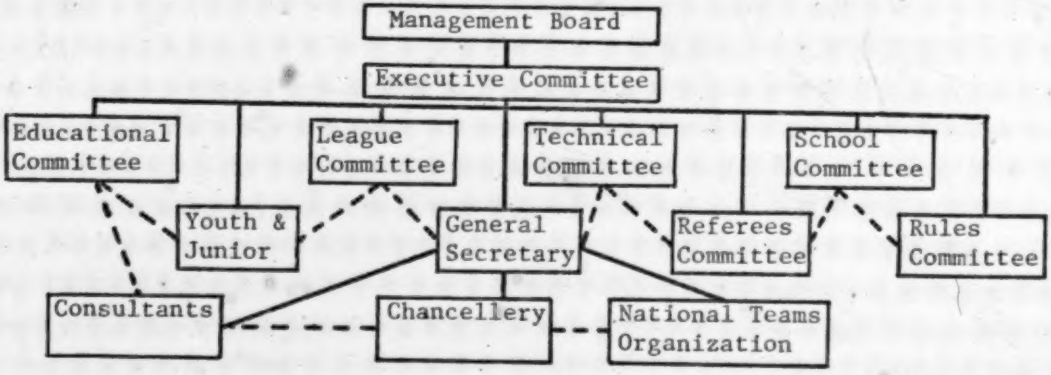

Management Board
Executive Committee
Educational Committee
League Committee
Technical Committee
School Committee
Youth & Junior
General Secretary
Referees Committee
Rules Committee
Consultants
Chancellery
National Teams Organization

Illustration 2.2

The Organization of the Swedish Ice Hockey Federation[8]

Although the Swedish government does not dictate policy to the sports governing federations, it appears that the sports bodies generally align with the position advocated by the government in international relations issues such as sporting contact with South Africa. Sporting officials and competitors are tacitly expected to represent the Swedish government and public in the international arena.

Educational agencies and authorities are involved to a limited extent in the programming of ice hockey and other sport. In the north of Sweden, schoolboy competitions in ice hockey have been organized under the auspices of educational authorities. This program appears to be on the wane as it is ostensibly being supplanted by programs organized through the sports clubs. In Stockholm and other centers of population in central and southern Sweden, schoolboy teams have competed in specially-sponsored cup competitions such as the *St. Erik's Cuppen* which will be discussed later in this chapter. The majority of the entrants, however, are sports club teams as their role seems to be replacing the organization by educational, community and individual sources. In a number of schools ice hockey is among a range of approved activities in which students can participate in training or game sessions with sports clubs in place of scheduled *activitets* classes.[9] The role of the sports clubs will be outlined in the next section on a "General Outline of the Ice Hockey System of Sweden."

Generally speaking the objectives sought in ice hockey programming align with objectives sought in the larger educational context. Children and youth are encouraged to develop skills, enjoy playing ice hockey and to become better sportsmen and citizens.[10] Youth organizations, and industrial, commercial and labor union organizations, generally do not involve themselves directly with the organization and programming of ice hockey. The initiative for the organization and programming of ice hockey rests upon the bedrock of voluntary effort from concerned citizens who support sport as members of sports clubs.

Sweden has consistently ranked among the world powers in ice hockey since its formal entry into international competition in 1921. The first evidence of ice hockey being played in Sweden occurred in about 1910, when the game was introduced via Belgium. Evidence of bandy occurs earlier as a result of informal contacts and sporting exchanges between Britain, Holland and Belgium and Sweden. The first game played in Sweden occurred in Stockholm in 1921 between *IFK Uppsala* and *Berliner Schlittschuhclub* and resulted in a 4-1 home victory. Bandy and ice hockey are both played in Sweden today, but ice hockey has grown to enthrall a much larger following of participants and spectators.

Until the late 1950s, ice hockey play was conducted almost exclusively in the northern and central coastal and interior areas of Sweden where climatic conditions supported the maintenance of open air, natural ice playing surfaces. This traditional pattern of participation has been progressively changing as new indoor and outdoor artificial ice arenas have been erected in the southern and coastal areas of Sweden. Despite the development of some candidates for the *Elitserien* and Division I categories of play (that is, the top calibres of play) from all over Sweden, the majority of top-flight playing prospects continue to be produced in the more northerly areas where artificial ice facilities are complemented by opportunities to play on natural ice surfaces and where the "culture" for participation in ice hockey remains strongest. Currently there are eighty indoor artificial ice halls and one hundred and forty-one artificial ice surfaces in Sweden.[11]

Paralleling the construction of special facilities for ice hockey participation has been a rise in production of and expenditure on ice hockey equipment and supplies. Sweden has assumed the position of a net exporter of ice hockey equipment, players and technology. Considerable interchange with North American and other European hockey-playing nations occurs. Participation in international sporting competition seems to have always been a natural outgrowth and reinforcement of the standard of domestic ice hockey participation. Currently there appears to be a keen interest among young players in developing their skills so that they may become top-level competitors in Swedish and international competitions, and perhaps in professional ice hockey in North America. Ice hockey is very popular with the Swedish public so it would seem natural that the youth would be encouraged by parents and significant others to participate.

GENERAL OUTLINE OF THE ICE HOCKEY SYSTEM OF SWEDEN

There are an estimated 1,300 sports clubs which are involved in sponsoring ice hockey in Sweden.[12] These clubs exist through the efforts of volunteers who are interested in furthering ice hockey and other sporting endeavor. The larger clubs may have one or more permanent employees who usually provide expertise in needed areas such as organization and management of the affairs of the whole club or of the special sections within the club (such as a *kanslis* [administrator] of the ice hockey section; see Illustration 2.3). Sports clubs who sponsor *Elitserien* or Division I teams may also have a full-time or part-time trainer who is charged with training the top team and perhaps assisting the trainers who work with the younger age-class teams. Regardless of the size of the club and the number of employees the membership must raise the necessary finances and perform the necessary functions to keep the club in operation.

Before outlining more direct aspects of ice hockey, a brief consideration of these sports clubs will be undertaken as they provide a major key for understanding all Swedish sport. The sports clubs of Sweden are not directly sponsored by unions, civil service, military, security force, factories and plants as they are in other European countries such as the Soviet Union and Czechoslovakia. They are at root a group of people who are interested in sporting endeavor, and who are willing to pay a nominal yearly membership fee, work on fund-raising projects and assist in programming in sport. Swedish sport is founded upon such voluntary sporting interest. The number of members in sports clubs sponsoring ice hockey is estimated at 400,000.[13]

Many of the sports clubs have a long history, upwards of eighty years, of involvement in Swedish sport and over this time have developed into business-oriented endeavors in order to support the substantial expense involved in sponsoring sport. Membership fees are maintained at a nominal level and are not designed to cover expenses.[14] Most sports clubs are therefore involved in fund-raising projects such as bingos or lotteries, and in many instances, in more permanent business enterprises such as restaurants and motels. In addition, the clubs generate monies from selling programs, advertising on uniforms, mementoes and so on. Another important source of financial assistance is the *Lokalt Aktivitets Stod*, which channels funds from the state via the communities to the sports clubs and other groups who program activities for youth.[15]

The membership numbers vary greatly. For example, *Malmö IF* has 500 adult members. *Västra Frolunda IF* has about 1000 adult members, and *Hammarby IF* has about 6000 members.[16] Many of the sports clubs sponsor participation in upwards of fifteen sports for their members whereas others concentrate upon fewer.[17] In the larger clubs an administrator runs the ice hockey section with direction from an elected ice hockey committee. Illustration 2.3 outlines the organization of the ice hockey section of one exemplary sports club, *Brynäs Idrottsförening*, in Gävle.

The number of ice hockey teams sponsored by a sports club varies, but the average seems to be at least six teams (that is, one team in each of the major divisions). Table 2.1 outlines the age-class divisions of Swedish ice hockey. *Hammarby IF*, in 1974-75, sponsored eleven teams and a learners' group: Division II Senior (one team), Junior (one team), A Boys (three teams), B Boys (two teams), C Boys (two teams), D Boys (two teams), and an *ishockeyskölan* for boys aged five to eight years.[19] On the other hand, *Malmö IF* and *Västra Frolunda* each sponsored six teams and an *ishockeyskölan* and are more in line with the norm.

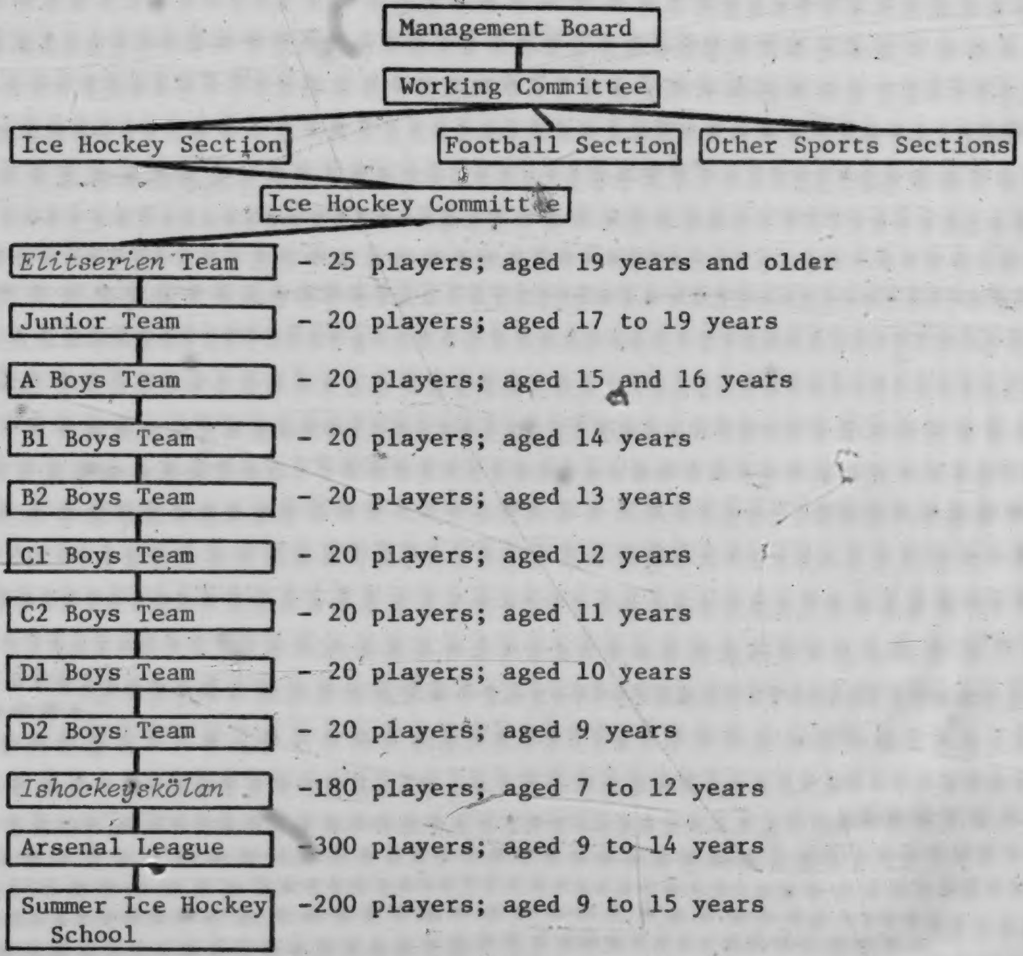

Management Board
Working Committee
Ice Hockey Section
Football Section
Other Sports Sections
Ice Hockey Committee
Elitserien Team
- 25 players; aged 19 years and older
Junior Team
- 20 players; aged 17 to 19 years
A Boys Team
- 20 players; aged 15 and 16 years
B1 Boys Team
- 20 players; aged 14 years
B2 Boys Team
- 20 players; aged 13 years
C1 Boys Team
- 20 players; aged 12 years
C2 Boys Team
- 20 players; aged 11 years
D1 Boys Team
- 20 players; aged 10 years
D2 Boys Team
- 20 players; aged 9 years
Ishockeyskölan
-180 players; aged 7 to 12 years
Arsenal League
-300 players; aged 9 to 14 years
Summer Ice Hockey School
-200 players; aged 9 to 15 years

Illustration 2.3

Organization of the Ice Hockey Section
of *Brynäs IF* Sports Club[18]

Table 2.1

Organization of Competition and Grouping in the Swedish Ice Hockey System[20]

Category		Age Classification
Senior: *Elitserien* Division I Division II Division III Division IV	-	aged 19 years and older
Junior	-	aged 17 and 18 years
A Boys	-	aged 15 and 16 years
B Boys	-	aged 13 and 14 years
C Boys	-	aged 11 and 12 years
D Boys	-	aged 10 years and younger
Ishockeyskölan	-	aged 5 to 12 years

The route for ice hockey development in Sweden lies in progression through the ranks of the sports clubs. Effectively there is no alternative to this development route. In spite of much resource being channeled towards construction of ice hockey facilities, there remains a great need for construction of more facilities to meet the current demands from users. This problem is one factor which appears to contribute toward a reduction in the number of participants in Swedish ice hockey and the difficulty in creating a larger mass ice hockey stream for youth in Sweden. A second factor seems to be the relatively large number of adult ice hockey teams and the apparent priority given to scheduling adult ice hockey, frequently at the expense of youth hockey scheduling. It may be noted from Table 2.1 that there are effectively five categories of adult ice hockey. Although figures are not available for the number of participants in Divisions IV and V (see footnote 20c) it is known that there were 224 teams in Divisions I, II, and III during the 1974-75 ice hockey season. Adult ice hockey, particularly representative teams, appears to tie up a significant portion of the prime time for scheduling of indoor facilities and to occupy priority in scheduling outdoor artificial facilities as well.

In the north of Sweden there has been a schoolboy competition in ice hockey but a championship was not planned for 1974-75. It seems that sports club ice hockey programming has supplanted school hockey. Some schools retained their ice hockey programs, but the geographical distance between competing schools and the emphasis upon sports club hockey has apparently rendered the championship inoperable.

Similarly, the strengthening of sports club programming seems to have reduced the numbers of specially-constituted teams which annually enter the special cup programs sponsored by some of the newspapers in Sweden. Previously, pick-up teams from school classes, living complexes, neighborhood recreation centers, friends, and so on were constituted to compete for the special cups. Although some such teams still do enter the cup competitions, apparently their numbers are greatly reduced as boys now play for their sports club teams in these competitions. These teams and their participants seem to represent what could be classed as the mass ice hockey stream.

Graphically, the Swedish ice hockey system may be represented by the following illustration.

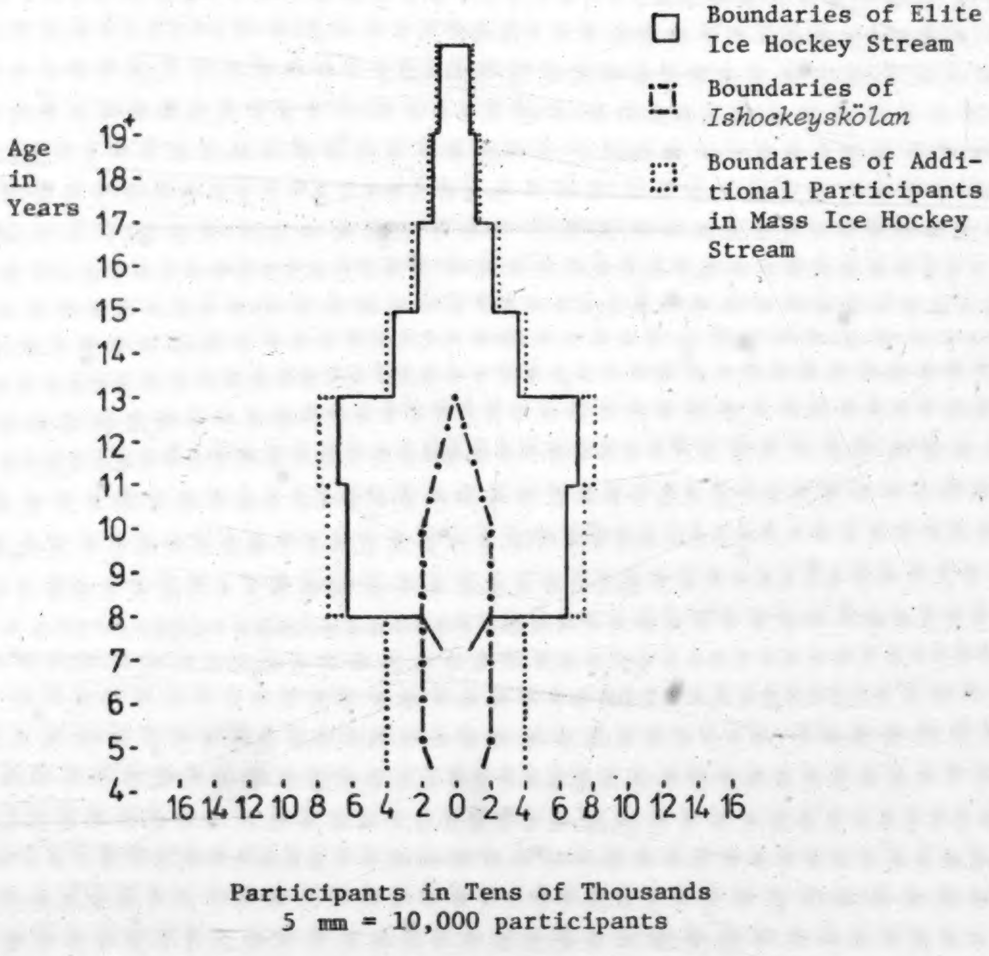


Illustration 2.4

Estimated Profile of Participants in Swedish Ice Hockey System[21]

THE ELITE ICE HOCKEY STREAM

Ice hockey in Sweden seems very much an elite-based sport, particularly in the larger centers of population (for example, Stockholm, Göteborg and Malmö). In the smaller centers of population the situation varies greatly. In the north of Sweden boys apparently have much opportunity for ice time on natural ice surfaces, whereas in other centers the opportunity to play is greatly restricted because of pressure on artificial ice time, and the small number of sports clubs sponsoring ice hockey; consequently, many boys are competing for positions on a small number of teams. In sum, local conditions, primarily based upon climatic conditions, historical participation patterns and resources--both material and human--dictate the extent to which ice hockey is an elite-based sport.[22]

Another factor influencing the extent of elitism is the status of certain of the sports clubs. Those sports clubs which have gained respect for their youth development programming (for example, *Hammarby IF* in Stockholm); which sponsor *Elitserien* or Division I teams (for example, *Djurgården IF* in Stockholm); or which are consistently successful in their results (for example, *Leksands IF* in Leksand), are sports clubs which generate a wider interest from boys and parents and keener competition among boys wishing to become members of one of these particularly-favored clubs.

The main development route for a boy aspiring towards top-caliber play begins with membership in an *ishockeyskölan* sponsored by a sports club. These ice hockey schools meet for one ice session per week (twice a week in certain clubs and centers) and progressively equip the learners with the skill-techniques they will need to successfully enter a D group team. In certain communities, mainly rural, the sports clubs do not sponsor a representative D Boys team, so the nine and ten year old boys remain in the *ishockeyskölan*. The ice hockey schools are designed particularly for boys aged five to eight so that they may enter the competitive program at age nine. In many instances, however, boys aged four are included in the schools (particularly the skating schools); and boys aged ten, eleven and twelve are allowed to remain in the school to prolong their opportunity to enter the elite team route. The number of boys in an *ishockeyskölan* varies greatly in accordance with local conditions. For example, *Malmö IF* had only fifteen boys because football season was still in progress. *Hammarby IF* had about sixty boys whereas Leksand taught about twenty boys and *Brynäs IF* had about one hundred and eighty boys.

Many boys do not enter the *ishockeyskölan* until age six or seven or later. Some boys in Sweden attend special beginning skating programs such as the one operated by the *Skid och Friluftsfrämjendet* which annually improves the skating skill of 16,000 to 19,000 youngsters aged five to eleven years.[23] In some communities special skating schools such as those sponsored by *Hammarby IF* are scheduled for children who wish to learn how to skate. In most communities, however, the boys learn to skate on their own with parents and peers, or at the *ishockeyskölan*. Some of the ice hockey schools employ figure or speed skating instructors to assist with teaching the basics of skating.

Regardless of where the boys learn to skate many learn and develop their skating to such an art that ice hockey officials of Canada and the Soviet Union have expressed admiration for the skating typified in Swedish ice hockey. Considerable emphasis upon skating is programmed in the ice training sessions at all levels of Swedish ice hockey. In addition to concentration upon skating the schools develop puck control skills, including stickhandling, passing and shooting, and the rudiments of individual and cooperative play.

There is considerable variation in the programming for youth in the various sports clubs and centers of population. The *Svenska Ishockeyförbundet* has not issued any publication which specifically outlines a step-by-step curriculum for the various age levels. The leadership development courses for coaches outline drills for the various skill-techniques, positional skills, and situations but do not explicitly provide ice hockey trainers with age-level emphases in programming. Other publications focus upon teaching methods for skill-techniques, dryland training and drills but specific direction from the Federation does not seem to occur.

The threads of continuity in programming are derived from the emphasis which is given to the fundamental skill-techniques. Excellence in execution of the fundamental skill-techniques seems, in many instances, to be every bit as important as the results gained with the skill. Skill-technique execution seems to be treated as an end in itself. Considerable emphasis is placed upon acquisition of a wide range of skill-techniques during the training sessions. There appear to be many similarities which pervade the training sessions at all levels of Swedish ice hockey; the tempo, the sequence, the content, and the drills appear similar in many of the sessions.

Although a specific curriculum guide is not available it seems possible to construct an outline of the content of training sessions for boys up to the age of twelve. Tables 2.2 and 2.3 present a synthesis of the content of training sessions for youth aged four to twelve years at various sports clubs in Sweden.

In Swedish ice hockey, the training program for top caliber adult and junior teams occupies eleven months of each year. Division III, IV and V, A, B, C and D Boys teams and *ishockeyskölan* generally follow a less extensive schedule.[25] Table 2.4 outlines the schedule for the training of top caliber teams in Swedish ice hockey. The extent of training by other teams depends upon local conditions and varies to an extent which makes generalization almost impossible. The *Hammarby IF* training program is outlined in Illustration 2.5. Most of the youth teams (C Boys, D Boys and *ishockeyskölan* must wait until outdoor artificial or natural ice becomes available to them. In many locales this does not occur until November or December so the yearly schedule is significantly re-arranged. In Goteborg and Stockholm many of the sports clubs could not begin their *ishockeyskölan* until January because of lack of ice time. D Boys teams and C Boys teams are forced to accept

Table 2.2

Dryland Training Program Content for Preparatory and Youngster Age Classifications in Swedish Ice Hockey[24]

Age Classification	Dryland Training
Ishockeyskölan (Ages 5 to 8 years)	-Movement tasks (running, jumping, hopping, skipping, rolling, turning, climbing, supporting, balancing) -Gymnastics -Games (Football, Handball, Novelty Games) -Exercises
D Boys (Ages 9 and 10 years)	-Games (as above) -Gymnastics -Exercises (circuit training) -Running (interval, sprint, endurance training)
C Boys (Ages 11 and 12 years)	-Exercises (circuit training) -Running (interval, endurance, sprint training) -Weight training with light weights -Shooting a weighted puck -Stickhandling with weight disc -Games (Football, Handball, Ball-hockey, Basketball) -Swimming -Special work (jumping program) -Theory of situational play, team play, positional play--simulation of on-ice situations

Table 2.3

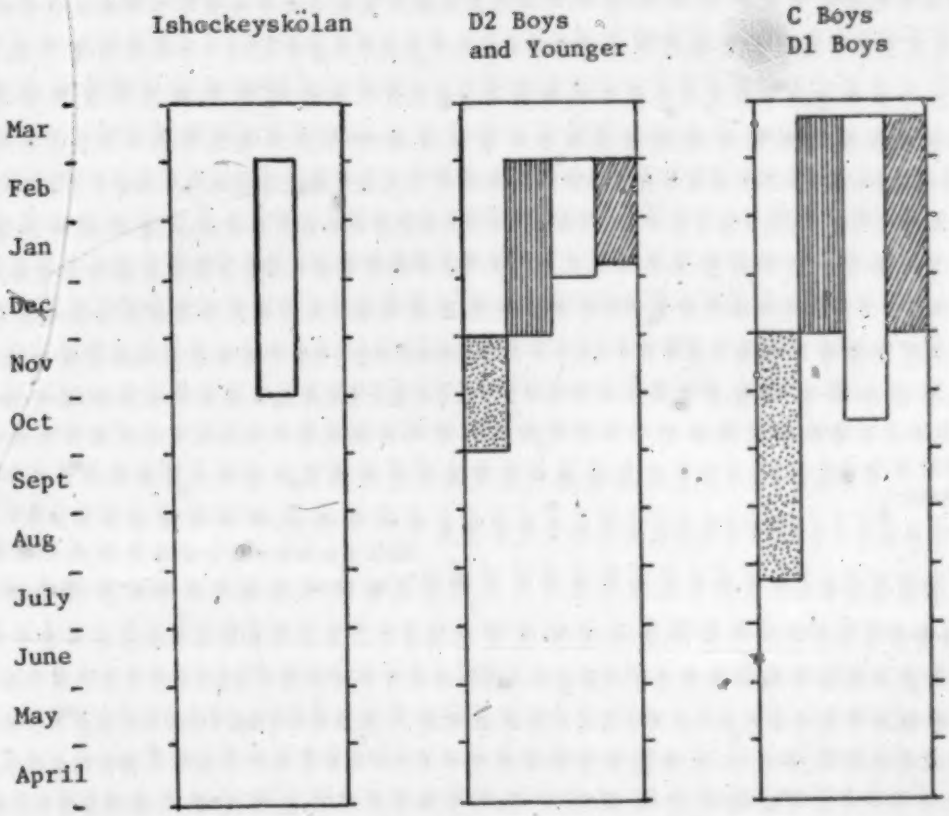
Ice Training Program Content for Preparatory and Youngster Age Classifications in Swedish Ice Hockey[24]

Age Classification	Ice Training
Ishockeyskölan (Ages 5 to 8 years)	-Forward skating skill-technique basics (correct body positioning, balancing, gliding, stroking, falling and getting up, turning, stopping, starting, skating with a stick, manoeuvering) -Backward skating -Skating games and relays -Puck control (stickhandling, passing, shooting) -Puck control games (keepaway, relays, zone or area scrimmage) -Goalkeeper play (some schools only)
D Boys (Ages 9 and 10 years)	-Forward skating (same emphasis as above--more complex drills at a higher tempo) -Agility skating -Backward skating -Skating with stickhandling -Passing -Shooting (wrist, slap) -Situational play -Positional skills--special schools or instruction for goaltenders -Team play -Drills for discrete and combination skill-techniques -Zone scrimmage -Game condition scrimmage
C Boys (Ages 11 and 12 years)	-Drills for discrete and combination skill-techniques -Situational play -Positional play -Systematic play (equal strength, man advantage, man disadvantage) -Drills for above -Zone scrimmage -Game condition scrimmage -Exercise program

Table 2.4

Schedule of Training in the Swedish Ice Hockey System[26]

Time Period	Type of Training	
June 1 - June 30	Holiday	-no team training; voluntary individual training
July 1 - Sept 30	Pre-Season	-dryland training sessions and ice training sessions in varying proportions depending upon level of play, proximity to games, seasonal needs. Transition from mainly dryland to mainly ice training as active season approaches
Oct 1 - Mar 31 (April 20)	Active Season	-ice training sessions mainly, with dryland training sessions to complement. Training camps for teams in time periods where breaks in the schedule occur, such as when national team is playing, and where an intense period of training is desired -ice training tapers during two week period immediately following last game
April 1 - May 31	Post Season	-dryland training sessions increase in intensity until last two weeks, when tapering occurs. Design of stress towards all-round improvement and also remedial in nature for individual players



▨ Dryland, conditioning, calisthenics, heavy weights

▥ Continuing the dryland training during the season to keep the peak level of pre-season dryland training

☐ Practising on ice during the season and in the summer in hockey schools

▨ Playing in league or tournament games

Illustration 2.5

Hammarby IF Yearly Program for *Ishockeyskölan*,
D Boys and C Boys Teams[27]

whatever is given to them after the needs of the higher age classifications are met. To partially overcome this problem many of the Stockholm children and youth teams travel to communities from fifty to two hundred and fifty kilometres distant, to hold intensive training camps and games against local teams. The training camps may only be a single day, but are usually two days (a weekend) in which a number of ice training sessions are held. The more successful youth teams expect to travel to build a good schedule of training sessions and games. The *ishockeyskölan* generally do not travel in order to procure ice time; instead, the sports club generally wait for ice time to become available in their own locale. In the interval they sometimes schedule dryland training sessions for the youngsters. A fairly common strategy employed by teams is the informal use of public skating time or open time, particularly during the day time or on weekdays, at the indoor and outdoor artificial ice rinks.

An exemplary program of training may be the program followed by a *Hammarby IF* C Boys team. In 1973-74 the boys, who were mostly eleven years old, engaged in the following schedule, outlined in Table 2.5, en route to becoming Stockholm Champions. In total, 127 training and game sessions were held during the year. The plans for the 1974-75 season included dryland training twice per week as a complement to two ice training sessions per week. The planning called for alterations in the basic schedule to accommodate games, but in total the number of training and game sessions was to be at least as high as during the 1973-74 season.[29]

Table 2.5

Hammarby IF C Boys Training Schedule 1973-74 Season[28]

Number	Type and Feature of Training Program
45	Matches (2 in September, most of remainder during November 1 to March 31 time period)
33	Dryland training sessions (mainly concerned with strength training and cardiovascular training using circuit training and interval running methods. Sessions commenced in mid-September and were scheduled twice per week until November 1. After November 1 the sessions were scheduled once per week.)
49	Ice training sessions

Table 2.6 attempts to set out the frequency of training sessions, number of games, and type of competition engaged in by Swedish boys aged five to twelve. An attempt has been made to set out an average picture of the situation which is based upon a composite of the information gleaned from observations of Swedish ice hockey. There is considerable variation in practice in the various centers of population, among the different sports clubs and among the different teams. Much of this variation appears to be based upon factors such as local conditions, the philosophy, success and aspiration of the club, the philosophy, interest and aspiration of the trainer, the success of the team, and the interest and aspiration of the boys. In situations where the success, interest and aspiration indices are all high then apparently the teams will train more frequently than the average and tend towards scheduling training in more of the months of the year.

Table 2.6

Frequency and Duration of Training Sessions; Number of Games; and Type of Competition Engaged in by *Ishockeyskölan*, D Boys and C Boys Age Classifications in Swedish Ice Hockey[30]

Age Classification	Frequency and Duration of Training Sessions per Week	Number of Formal Games in a Season	Type and Extent of Competition
Ishockeyskölan (Aged 5 to 8 years)	1 to 2 sessions of 45-60 min.	none	Zone scrimmage in training sessions only
D Boys (Aged 9 and 10 years)	2 to 3 sessions of 60-90 min.	15-30 games approx., 10 league and 10 exhibition	League games, cup matches, friendship matches, culmination games, generally local competition only
C Boys (Aged 11 and 12 years)	3 sessions of 75-90 min.	20-40 games approx. 15 league and 15 exhibition	League games, cup matches (e.g., *Kluring-Pucken*), friendship matches. Local district competition (national for *Kluring-Pucken* Tournament)

The content of a typical ice training session for the *ishockeyskölan* age classification includes: warm up stretching exercises while skating (2-4 minutes); skating basics--forward skating only until late in season or until mastery, then backward is introduced (including correct body positioning, striding, turning [skating, gliding types], braking, skating with a stick), (20-40 minutes); puck control basics (selected from stickhandling, passing, pass receiving and shooting)--depending upon stage in season--in the early season, none, in the late season, perhaps twenty minutes (10-20 minutes); novelty skill-technique relay or contest, individual play or in latter stages of season, zone scrimmage or game-conditions scrimmage for older boys aged eight years (5-10 minutes). In ice sessions at the *Malmö IF*, *Hammarby IF* and *Leksands IF ishockeyskölan* the quality of instruction seemed to be of a high standard. Boys advancing out of those programs will presumably be well-grounded in the basic skill-techniques and in enjoyment of training sessions.

The format and contents for the D Boys ice training sessions seemed quite similar to the ice hockey school sessions because of the concentration upon fundamental skill-techniques. The same warm-up was used as a prelude to skating drills which were usually similar to those used in the ice hockey schools, but were conducted at higher tempo, with more complexity and physiological demand. Often the drills selected combined other skill-techniques with skating. In most instances about one-half of the practice was based upon skating and combination drills which emphasized skating. The remainder of the time in the ice training sessions was programmed with a variety of content which reflected the individual situation of each team. There were more differences than similarities, so it is difficult to establish a typical content for the latter half of the ice training sessions.

Great variety of content was present in the ice training sessions of the C Boys, but emphasis upon skating remained a core in each of the sessions. Table 2.3 outlines the variety of content which occupied the time not spent on skating emphasis. More time seemed to be given to scrimmage during the C Boys sessions than was the norm for the D Boys training sessions.

Generally the quality of the ice sessions, assessed in terms of organization, teaching, efficiency, technical merit, value to the participants and enjoyment by the participants seemed very good. The training sessions especially selected because of their reputation (for example, *Hammarby IF*) were excellent in all respects. The standard for all the programs observed appeared to vary in accordance with the quality of leadership.

It would appear that the use of dryland training sessions to complement and supplement the ice training sessions is not widely accepted at either the *ishockeyskölan* or D Boys age classifications. Some sports clubs do employ dryland training but they seem to be in the minority. The practice seems much more common at the C Boys and higher age classifications. The content, as outlined in Table 2.2, will not be elaborated upon. Most of the sessions observed were excellent and well-suited to their purposes.

At all levels the boys expect that serious training will be a natural occurrence in their ice hockey development. The development model for the elite ice hockey player seems to be based upon a ratio of between two and three training sessions for each game played. At minimum, the ratio appeared to be at least two training sessions for each game played by the boys.

The selection procedure for entrance into a sports club program appears to be based on the idea of accepting as many boys as possible. In cases where room prohibits acceptance of all interested boys, skating ability is the main index used for selecting successful candidates. Generally the selection procedure does not become operable until the D Boys teams are selected from among *ishockeyskölan* participants. Normally the candidates are observed over a period of time in the sessions of the *ishockeyskölan*, so boys have a good chance to develop skill-technique and to show their abilities prior to being selected.

Between twenty and twenty-five boys are selected for the D Boys teams. The boys selected need not be age nine or ten, as in many instances younger boys who are the best prospects are selected before age nine or ten. Once a member of a sports club team, the player must maintain his position. As the boys move upwards the competition for positions becomes more acute, but to all appearances the selection process does not seem to be as constrictive as might be expected considering the taxing of resources. The apparent reason seems to lie in the opportunity to play for one of the many teams in the higher age classifications.

Priority in scheduling is provided to older age-group teams. This is not to say that many boys are not forced to discontinue play in ice hockey; rather, that the attrition rate seems to be less sharply defined and therefore allows more survivors, who in a great many instances can prolong their hockey playing into the senior classifications. Unfortunately figures are not available which can be marshalled to support this impression. The major evidence seems to be derived from the structure of the sports clubs, the majority of which sponsor an average of at least six teams--one at each major division or grouping for organization of competition; and from the scheduling priorization, which favors older-age teams.

Although an increasing number of trainers working with ice hockey in the sports clubs are presenting credentials including specialized training in ice hockey and teaching and training in sport, the overwhelming majority are volunteers who present nothing more than interest, enthusiasm and at least some involvement with ice hockey. Swedish ice hockey trainers may bring three types of training certification to their work with ice hockey players. Some trainers have taken a specialization in ice hockey within the equivalent of a degree in physical education at the *Gymnastics och Idrotts Högskolan* in Stockholm; others have taken a two-year specialization in ice hockey at the *RF* leadership development center, the Sports Institute at Boson; and most of the specially-educated trainers have taken an *Utbildningskommittee* (*UBK*, Leadership Development and Education Committee) course sponsored by the Swedish Ice Hockey Federation.[27]

The Swedish Ice Hockey Federation has been quite active in promoting their *UBK* courses and in providing pertinent and practical materials which are designed to assist volunteer trainers and sports club officials. Despite the Federation's activity the majority of volunteer trainers working with boys remain untrained and reliant upon trial-and-error experience with their players. As was previously mentioned, many of the larger clubs and especially those sponsoring *Elitserien* or Division I teams have a full-time or part-time trainer who may assist in youth development in addition to his major responsibilities with the senior team.

THE MASS ICE HOCKEY STREAM

The elite ice hockey stream monopolizes the majority of resources available for ice hockey in Sweden and, consequently, the existence of a mass ice hockey stream is almost precluded. In the centers of population which rely upon artificial ice it is virtually impossible for even casual or episodic participation in ice hockey unless one is a member of a sports club team. In the northern and central areas of Sweden the use of natural ice facilitates opportunities for ice hockey outside of the sports club framework.

The sports clubs apparently have first call in every setting upon facilities, equipment, leadership and time resources so the mass ice hockey stream, where it exists, is clearly second in priority. In many communities the elite ice hockey stream and mass ice hockey stream appear to be fused because the single extant hockey program seems to service the concerns for elite development as well as providing participation for less physically-gifted players.

The program of ice hockey organized by school officials in the north is apparently on the wane and may suffer a similar fate to the non-sports club teams which used to enter the special cup competitions sponsored by various newspapers. In the face of competition for resources, players and success the sports club programs have ostensibly supplanted the non-sports club team cup entrants and seem to be in the process of overpowering the school-based programs. Participant-organized programs do exist, mainly for older age groups, but they seem no match in competition for resources. The situation seems to resolve, primarily on the basis of resource competition, to an emphasis upon elite player development with some accommodation of participation objectives wherever resources permit.

SOME NOTEWORTHY FEATURES IN THE ORGANIZATION AND DEVELOPMENT OF ICE HOCKEY IN SWEDEN

Some brief comments will be set forth upon a number of features inherent in the organization and development of ice hockey which lend a distinctive stamp to Swedish ice hockey.

Considerable importance is given to the development of individual technical skill-techniques. Before a boy enters game competition he has had the opportunity to establish a sound skill-technique foundation in skating and puck control. As the boy progresses he takes part in many training sessions which reinforce and augment this foundation, so that when the product of the Swedish ice hockey system is assessed it is understandable that he should exhibit a high level of skill-technique.

The Swedish ice hockey system is founded upon the efforts of volunteers at every level, with the exception of the top-caliber senior classifications, the administrators running the sports clubs and the trainers of top-caliber teams.[31] Trainers for youth teams are usually parents or interested persons who volunteer much of their time towards ice hockey.

In spite of the relative lack of formal training and the voluntary status of trainers, most of the training sessions observed seemed to be on a very good level. Both the trainers and the boys generally assume a serious approach to training sessions and games. Their serious approach seems to be a part of the larger sportsman's code within Swedish sport. The code appears to be based upon an achievement-orientation which encourages pursuit of excellence in acquisition of skill-technique and a consuming interest in and pursuit of the sport. The role of the volunteer trainer seems to be made easier by the sportsmanlike orientation and the increasingly attractive stakes, through remuneration in professional and top-level European competition, which await the successful graduate of youth hockey.

Special goaltending schools are frequently held and are conducted by top players. Another special type of session observed by the writer was a combination theory-dryland training session on tactical play. One of the *Hammarby IF* C Boys teams discussed tactical play prior to physically moving through the items in gymnasium setting.

Players in the C Boys age classification have the opportunity to participate in a skill-technique test battery called the *Teknikmarket.*[32] The *Teknikmarket* involves testing in the fundamental skill-techniques of skating and puck control. There are norms which are available for the test items so trainers may use the test battery as both a motivational and an evaluative device.

There appear to be no special rules for competition which are introduced for children's or youth hockey. No limitation upon the use of curved sticks, slap shots, or body checking seems to occur. Similarly, there do not seem to be any programs in which special rules have been introduced to equalize playing time or competition (that is by compulsory time limits and by categorization of units respectively). The full ice surface is used for all games, but reduced time-lengths for periods of play are used.

There are strong sanctions, both from the rules of play and from expected conduct in sporting endeavor, against fighting and other ~~forms~~ of violent play. Ice hockey players are expected to be sportsmen in every sense of the concept.

In all of the training sessions observed, drills practising the backhand shot occurred only twice. The forehand sweep (wrist) shot was practised in a number of drills but was seemingly forgotten or neglected at every occasion during scrimmages or games. The slap shot is the dominant shot in Swedish ice hockey. Similarly, the curved stick is nearly universally used by hockey players in all age classifications.

Individual play prevails in the D Boys' and C Boys' games. Cooperative play is usually covered in the training sessions for D Boys as is systemic play usually covered in C Boys' training sessions. The differences, however, in ability level and the prominent emphasis upon individual skill-technique seem to create a style of play based more upon individualism than team play. Only the very disciplined, and ostensibly more successful, teams employed a cooperative team play style. It appeared that most teams employed a lane and position concept of the game. The majority of Swedish youth trainers did not attempt to teach a flow concept based upon interchangeability of positions in certain situations and relationships. They felt, in most cases, that only more experienced players could effectively implement this style of play.

The unit concept, wherein five players normally play together in training sessions and games, was used by most of the C Boys teams observed. At the D Boys category it seemed that only a few of the best teams used the concept.

Earlier in this chapter the *Kluring-Pucken* cup was mentioned. In addition to this national competition for C Boys there are a number of other cup competitions which are also sponsored by newspapers. The *St. Erik's Cuppen*, organized by the *Expressen*, is the largest of the competitions and includes play for all age levels (9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16 and 17 years). In 1973-74 an estimated 12,000 boys and 678 teams participated. Other competitions, on a smaller regional, district or city basis, are the following:

Fyris Cuppen--Uppsala, *G-P Pucken*--Göteborg, *S.D.S. Cuppen*--southerly districts of Sweden.

Another noteworthy feature of Swedish youth hockey is the training camp concept. Youth teams follow the lead of top-caliber teams in scheduling training camps, which are intensive periods of training held during a one, two or three day time period. Two and perhaps three training sessions are held each day. These sessions may be ice training, dryland training, and/or game sessions depending upon the particular design of the training camp. These training camps are usually held in a setting which is conducive to team togetherness and enjoyment of nature so that benefits in addition to technical, tactical and physiological improvements are realized.

Special spring and summer hockey schools are held. In Göteborg, *Västra Frolunda IF* conduct a hockey school for D Boys during the March to May time period. The school is held in this time period because of the pressure on facilities at other times during the year. Sessions are held three times weekly for ninety minutes and are designed to cover fundamental skill-techniques, positional play, situational play and the rudiments of team play. The summer hockey schools tend to be commercial ventures which are held in concentrated week-long or fortnight-long sessions. Many sports clubs sponsor schools in hopes of securing a profit while upgrading skills in their own players and any others who attend the schools.

Sport is a very prominent feature of Swedish society and in that role it generates much discussion and debate. Many aspects of

Swedish ice hockey feature variety and individual approaches, so it would seem natural that there would be issues present in children's hockey. Some of these issues are the following: the optimal age for commencing ice hockey training; the best way of teaching beginning players the fundamental skill-techniques; the type and extent of training and competition for young players; the long-term effects of early participation in an intensive training and extensive game schedule; the extent to which serious adult training, organization and competition should be undertaken by young boys; the priority for scheduling which the municipal authorities should provide to certain elite sports clubs in relation to other sports clubs and groups.

Some of the problems which appear to be confronting Swedish ice hockey for children aged four to twelve years are the following: the need for more facilities; the need for more ice time for younger groups; the need to expand opportunities for more young players to play ice hockey in the elite sports clubs and in other more recreationally-based sport clubs and groups; and the need for more trained coaches for children's ice hockey.

SOME CONCLUDING REMARKS

Ice hockey has found a very favorable environment in the Swedish sporting culture. Developing ice hockey players have the opportunity to pursue their chosen sport with the support of an encouraging value orientation; a development system backed by concentration of considerable societal resource; and an approach to ice hockey which emphasizes individual technical competence, rational development through extensive training, and serious pursuit of excellence.

CHAPTER II FOOTNOTES

[1] The figure of 200,000 active participants is listed in the WM (Ice Hockey World Championship) Program, *Eishockey Welt-und Europa--Meisterschaft*, 3-19, 4, 1975 (Munchen and Dusseldorf). Lennart Skordaker, a youth development consultant with the *Svenska Ishockeyförbundet* (Swedish Ice Hockey Federation) in 1974 estimated that the number of participants might be as high as 250,000 to 300,000 participants. These higher figures include an estimate of the undetermined number of unregistered players who play at all levels of ice hockey and who may participate on an episodic basis. Media interest information also supplied by Skördåker.

[2] In 1974-75, there were at least three players who were professional, in the sense of earning a substantial salary and other material benefits solely through their ice hockey endeavors. A number of other players have occupations such as public relations representatives, salesmen and agents with sporting goods companies which are spin-offs from their reputation and exploits in the ice halls. Most players in the *Elitserien* and Division I receive at least a moderate monetary return. In addition some Division II players receive some remuneration. Swedish ice hockey players who wish to derive considerable money from ice hockey endeavor generally attempt to obtain playing contracts in North America or in other European countries such as the Federal Republic of Germany, Switzerland or Austria.

[3] Stan Svensson, *The Swedish Sports Federation* (Stockholm: The Swedish Sports Federation, 1971), p. 5.

[4] Interview with Mr. Bengt Wallin, Programs Supervisor, *Rikidrottsförbundet* (Stockholm: October 25, 1974).

[5] Svensson, loc. cit.

[6] These responsibilities were communicated to the writer by Mr. Stig Nilsson, General Secretary, *Svenska Ishockeyforbundet*, during a structured interview in Stockholm on October 1, 1974.

[7] *Svenska Ishockeyförbundet, Steg 1 (Grundkors) I Ishockey* (Stockholm: *Svenska Ishockeyförbundet*, 1974), p. 2.

[8] Stig Nilsson, op. cit., supplied the information for this illustration of the Swedish Ice Hockey Federation.

Notes: a. The Management Board consists of President, Treasurer, General Secretary and officials elected to the Board of Directors. Overall direction of the Federation is the responsibility of the Management Board.

b. The Executive Committee is responsible for overall co-ordination of all the other committees. It is comprised of the various committee chairmen.

d. The Chancellery is the office staff and the Consultants, two in number, who have responsibility for educational and youth ice hockey development in Swedish ice hockey.

[9] For example, Malmö schools allow boys to train with their hockey teams during a regularly scheduled "free-time activities" time blocking in the afternoons.

[10] The objectives were outlined to the writer in an interview with Mr. Lennart Skördåker, Youth Development Consultant and Mr. Kjell Larsson, Leadership Development Consultant, with the Swedish Ice Hockey Federation, Stockholm, October 3, 1974.

[11] Figures supplied by Mr. Kjell Larsson, Leadership Development Consultant, Swedish Ice Hockey Federation, Stockholm, June, 1976. In addition there are at least 141 outdoor natural ice rinks for ice hockey competition.

[12] *Svenska Ishockeyförbundet, Steg 1 (Grundkors) I Ishockey*, loc. cit. It may be noted that in the *WM* Program from 1975 the number of sports clubs is established at 1200.

[13] Ibid.

[14] Actual membership fees vary. For adults the range appears to be thirty to fifty kroner per year, and for children under age 18 the membership fee varies from ten to twenty kroner per year ($1.00 Canadian is approximately four Swedish kroner).

[15] The *Lokalt Aktivitets Stod* provides a sum of ten kroner per participant to an organization which has a planned program of at least one hour in duration in which there is a leader and a minimum of five persons who are aged twelve to twenty-five years. In 1974-75, about eight kroner per participant was provided under this program for organizing youth activity because there appeared to be great demand placed on the available funds. Recently a so-called "Camilia Money" program was set up on a trial basis to extend five million kroner for support of planned youth activity for children aged seven to eleven years. Ice hockey is one of the approved activities. The money is "paid" to the sports clubs in different ways. In Malmö, for example, the ice time used by sports clubs may be charged to these funds so the sports clubs may use the ice "free of charge". In reality a club could make some money because the ice rental is less costly than the sum which is derived from funding a team on ice for a one-hour session.

[16] Figures supplied by *kanslis* of respective clubs. *IF* stands for *Idrotts Förening* (Sports Club). No breakdown is available on the number of adult members in the *Hammarby IF*.

[17] *Hammarby IF* sponsors participation in fifteen sports, *Västra Frolunda IF* in four sports and *Malmö IF* in ten sports.

[18] The information for Illustration 2.3 was provided by Tommy Sandlin, Trainer for *Brynäs IF Elitserien* team, structured interview, November 24, 1974. Notes:

a. The Management Board consists of a President, Secretary, Treasurer, three elected members and two deputies. It is responsible for the overall direction of the affairs of the sports club.

b. The Working Committee is comprised of the presidents of each sports section and is responsible for coordinating effort among all the sports.

c. The Ice Hockey Committee is comprised of a President, Secretary (or Administrator), Treasurer and two elected members. The direction of the youth ice hockey development program is in the hands of a youth ice hockey chairman and two elected members on the Youth Ice Hockey Committee.

d. The *Arsenal League* is a league organized and sponsored by *Brynäs IF* for boys in Gävle. It provides opportunity for game play for boys aged nine to fourteen years. This participation-type league and the Summer Ice Hockey School are sponsored and organized in cooperation with the municipal authorities in Gävle.

e. The *Ishockeyskölan* (Ice Hockey School) operates on Mondays from 2:00 to 5:00 p.m. with the cooperation of the Gävle school authorities, in the same manner as previously outlined for Malmö.

f. It may be noted that there are approximately 365 active players on the teams and *Ishockeyskölan* in *Brynäs IF*. The Arsenal League and the Summer Ice Hockey School service many of the same players, including some of the participants in the *Ishockeyskölan*.

[19] The *Hammarby IF* program is designed so that there is a younger team and an older team at each age classification. For example, there is a nine-year-old D Boys team and a ten-year-old D Boys team.

[20] Notes:

a. For international competition at the Junior age level a team of 19-year-old players is selected from among the senior players who are eligible.

b. In reality some boys enter the *ishockeyskölan* at age four years. The schools derive most of their members from boys aged five to eight years. Some boys continue in the hockey schools until age twelve, but the design of the program is such that boys are expected to use the school sessions as preparation for entry into the D group teams. Some sports clubs, such as *Hammarby IF*, sponsor a skating school which takes any boy interested in learning to skate. Later the boys can move up through the ice hockey or bandy section of the club.

c. The table is based upon the new organization for senior hockey which commenced in 1975-76. Previously there were more teams in Division I (16 teams) and II (64 teams); in 1975-76 there were only ten teams in the *Elitserien* and 48 in Division I. The changes in terminology were as follows (1974-75 in brackets): *Elitserien* (Division I), Division I (Division II), Division II (Division III), Division III (Division IV), Division IV (Division V).

d. It should be noted that there are no special rankings or distinctions such as Calibre 1, AA, or so on within the age groupings. That is, all boys aged ten years and younger play D Boys ice hockey. There are separate leagues for children's and youth hockey up to and including the Junior grouping, which are formed according to which division the senior team is in. For example, in Stockholm, children and youth teams which are within a sports club whose senior team competes in the *Elitserien* and Division I categories play in a separate league from children's and youth teams whose senior team competes in Division II and III. In addition the size, success and emphasis of the ice hockey section of the sports club dictates which league the boy teams play within. In sum, there are distinctions which tend to reflect ability level but the distinctions for the leagues (and categories) are based on factors other than straight ability.

[21] Notes:

a. Estimates are based upon extrapolation of profiles of sports clubs and known numbers of certain categories of play (for example, Senior Divisions).

b. Age category 4-12 represents the estimated numbers in the *ishockeyskölan*. It should be noted that boys may remain in the hockey school until age 12.

c. Age category under 10 represents D Boys ice hockey. It should be noted that boys may enter D Boys competition whenever they are selected.

d. The boundaries for the mass ice hockey stream have been added to the elite ice hockey stream to provide a composite profile of the entire ice hockey stream.

e. Estimates of numbers of participants:

Category	Elite Ice Hockey Stream	Mass Ice Hockey Stream
19 & older	10,000	1,500
17 & 18	15,000	2,500
15 & 16	22,500	5,000
13 & 14	37,500	5,000
11 & 12	50,000	10,000
under 10	45,000	10,000
4 to 12	20,000	20,000

[22] In Stockholm in 1974-75, for the sake of illustration, there were 160 sports clubs which sponsored 1,921 teams who played over 5,600 games in the year so the pressure upon the two indoor arenas created an intense and somewhat impossible situation.

[23] Perhaps one-third of the participants in this program are boys. The figures given are for 1973-74 and 1972-73 respectively. (The lower figure in 1973-74 is attributed to a very poor winter.)

[24] Notes:

a. In the *ishockeyskölan* the program for the younger boys (ages 5, 6, 7) is almost exclusively concerned with skating development. Puck control skills and cooperative puck games are usually gradually introduced towards the latter part of a season.

b. The *Leksand IF Ishockeyskölan* provided special instruction for goaltenders aged seven and eight. Other schools did not encourage specialization until the latter part of the season when boys are eight or nine.

c. Many sports clubs do not have an eleven-month training schedule for their ice hockey players so the dryland training occurs in some portion of the August to December time period when ice is often not scheduled for *ishockeyskölan*. Many sports clubs do not schedule dryland training in the post-season time period for their younger players aged five to eight. Some do not schedule dryland training for the D or C Boys either, as the club philosophy, local conditions and interest of the trainer appear to be paramount in determining the extent of dryland training.

d. There is considerable variation in the specific content included in the training sessions. An attempt has been made to include items which occur in the training sessions of three or more sports clubs.

[25] Divisions IV and V are basically recreational ice hockey programs, but many of the participants seem to treat their recreation seriously.

[26] Notes:

This schedule is primarily based upon the Senior divisions of play. Considerable adjustments are made at each of the other age-classifications in accordance with local conditions, philosophy of trainer and sports club, seasonal requirements and so on. For example, the yearly schedules for the age groupings in the *Hammarby IF* sports clubs outlined in Illustration 2.5 and Table 2.5 reveal the variety of emphasis present even within one sports club.

[27] Notes:

a. Information supplied by Mr. Leif Boork, *Kanslis*, *Hammarby IF*, Stockholm, October 9, 1974.

b. Every team in the *Hammarby IF* employs dryland training, conditioning, calisthenics, pre-season ice training, ice training during the season, and complementary dryland training during the season in order to train the hockey players.

c. There are only two indoor arenas in the Stockholm area to service 160 sports clubs which organize 1,921 teams which play more than 5,600 games. In addition, there are approximately ten outdoor artificial ice rinks to accommodate the players at all levels of ice hockey, so this facility limitation should be noted in evaluating the yearly program of the *Hammarby IF*.

d. *Ishockeyskölan* practised on ice twice per week for forty-five minutes. Emphasis upon skating during November 7 to December 20 time period and upon skating, puck control and individual skills during the remainder of the time during which ice was available was the case. Boys five to twelve years are in the *ishockeyskölan*, though there have been some instances of four-year-olds participating, a practice not encouraged by sports club officials.

e. The D2 Boys is based upon players who are nine and younger. The children are scheduled into at least one dryland and/or "continuing" dryland training session per week during the season; one on-ice session per week; and one to two games per week in the January-February time period. In addition they normally participate in at least one tournament. In total they play at least ten to twelve games in the season.

f. The D1 Boys programs ten-year-old boys whereas the C2 and C1 teams include eleven and twelve year olds, respectively. The training schedule includes at least one dryland and/or "continuing" dryland session during the season to complement one to two on-ice sessions per week. The schedule of games includes at least twenty to twenty-five games on a basis of one or two per week in addition to participation in two or three tournaments.

[28] Information supplied by Börje Nilsson, trainer of *Hammarby IF* C Boys team, while the writer observed a dryland training session on October 10, 1974.

[29] Ibid.

[30] The *Kluring-Pucken* is an annual cup competition for all C Boys in Sweden. It is sponsored by the *Aftonbladet* newspaper. Twenty-three District Winners are declared who qualify to advance to Regional Play where six winners are selected. The six Regional Winners play a National Tournament for the *Kluring-Pucken Cup*. All boys and teams are eligible to enter the play towards this cup. Other similar cups which are sponsored by newspapers will be discussed later in the paper.

[31] Currently, *Steg 1* (Step 1) and *Steg 2* (Step 2) *UBK* courses are conducted for trainers who are selected by the *UBK* on the recommentation of the trainers' sports club. A more advanced seminar is conducted exclusively for the *Elitserien* and Division I coaches as a follow-up to the World Championship in Ice Hockey each Spring.

[32] *Elitserien*, Division I and some other Division II and Junior players receive in most cases at least a limited amount of direct financial remuneration and/or assistance in the form of tuition, accommodation or job placement.

CHAPTER III

THE ORGANIZATION AND DEVELOPMENT OF ICE HOCKEY DURING CHILDHOOD IN CZECHOSLOVAKIA

INTRODUCTION

Czechoslovakia has long been in the forefront of international ice hockey play. Their playing success, since formal organization of the *Výbor Svazu Ledniho Hokeje ÚVČSTV* (*VS-LH ÚVČSTV*, Czechoslovakian Ice Hockey Federation) in 1908, appears to occur in spite of difficulties present in the form of a climatic condition in most of the country which necessitates reliance upon artificial ice, an apparent lack of artificial ice surfaces in relation to ice hockey demand and interest, and a relatively small number of ice hockey players in comparison with other international ice hockey powers.

These related obstacles seem to be surmounted mainly by a sound and efficient program of leadership development, a program which is founded upon leadership training courses for coaches at all levels, widespread distribution of topical and current information (curriculum guides, planning manuals, teaching guides, research reports, books) and analytical and practical empirical inquiry into all questions which will assist in developing Czechoslovakian ice hockey; and a sound and efficient program of player development which is based upon early selection and systematic, thorough development of playing talent through use of knowledgeable trainers, a scientifically based, systematic and extremely demanding training process, and concentration of available resources upon the selected players.

Ice hockey, while ranking second only to football in number of participants, is the leading sport for media coverage and spectator interest. The recent successes of the Czechoslovakian national team in the 1972, 1976 and 1977 World Championships and the consistently high placement in the Olympic Games, Izvestia Tournament and Canada Cup Tournament have generated considerable interest within the Czechoslovakian nation. During the last seven years the Czechoslovakian national team has finished first, three times; second, three times; and third, once, in the World Championships, so they possess an enviable record. Successes in international play against the Soviet Union are particularly important in view of the hegemonic political situation within the Warsaw Pact countries. Sport has served instrumental political ends in Czechoslovakia since at least the late nineteenth century when Miroslav Tyrš was creating the *Sokol* movement idea and founding the *Sokol* system of training.[1] It would seem that ice hockey sits solidly in the classification of representative sport which is designed to fight the "war without weapons"[2] in international relations and to redress the political situation among the socialist countries. Related instrumental ends in the cultural, social, economic and educational spheres are sought through sport participation and success. Communication of national vigor and prestige, provision of ideological and social models, promotion of politically-approved leisure activities and physical culture pursuits,[3] and maintenance of social order may also be serviced through representative and instrumental use of sporting endeavour.

With so much at stake in internal and international relations it seems fitting that the player's role and the attendant reward structure should be very attractive to Czechoslovakian youth. Hockey players are provided with sports club and, in instances where a player is of national team calibre, state subsidization in the form of material and non-material rewards. Travel, special individualized study and employment opportunities, access to and priority for goods and services, status and other rewards are concomitants of play in the "First League" and particularly of play on the national team.

The subsidies and incentives provided to athletes are only one portion of a well-funded and pervasive program of state involvement in sporting endeavour. Sports policy is directed by responsible members of the Communist Party in Czechoslovakia and dictated through the *Československého Svazu Tělesne Výchovy* (*ČSTV*, Czechoslovakian Union for Physical Culture and Sport) organization. *ČSTV* and all other organizations in Czechoslovakia operate with two central committees. One is provided by the Communist Party and is responsible for input of governmental and ideological policy, while the other committee is comprised of functionaries directly concerned with the responsibilities of the particular organization. In most instances the Party or government committee is not visible and is therefore referred to as the "shadow committee," even though it has the final decision and represents the real power.

ČSTV is the national sports organization which has representatives from all the sports governing bodies as well as special interest groups concerned with military-type sports, spartakiads, physical fitness programs, and physical education. Illustration 3.1 presents the organization of sport and ice hockey in Czechoslovakia.

The aim of the Czechoslovakian Physical Training Union has been stated by Himl.

> The aim of all our efforts, however, is not only the sports glory of our Republic but above all, man, the citizen of our socialist homeland and his all-round, harmonious mental and physical development.[5]

The Czechoslovakian Ice Hockey Association is responsible for all aspects of domestic and international ice hockey play. The organization of *VS-LH ÚVČSTV* is outlined in Illustration 3.2.

Ice hockey is played in all parts of Czechoslovakia. The areas in the north and south which are closest to the mountains are able to maintain outdoor natural ice during the winter months so their programming reflects more time on ice for participants. In less-favoured areas where natural ice cannot be sustained, local associations must rely upon outdoor and indoor artificial ice surfaces. In 1974 there were one hundred and two artificial ice surfaces distributed throughout Czechoslovakia.[7]

Whereas there is an apparent need for more ice surfaces to accommodate the interest in ice hockey in Czechoslovakia, ice hockey equipment and supplies are in sufficient quantity to pose no limitation upon participation in ice hockey. Czechoslovakia exports ice

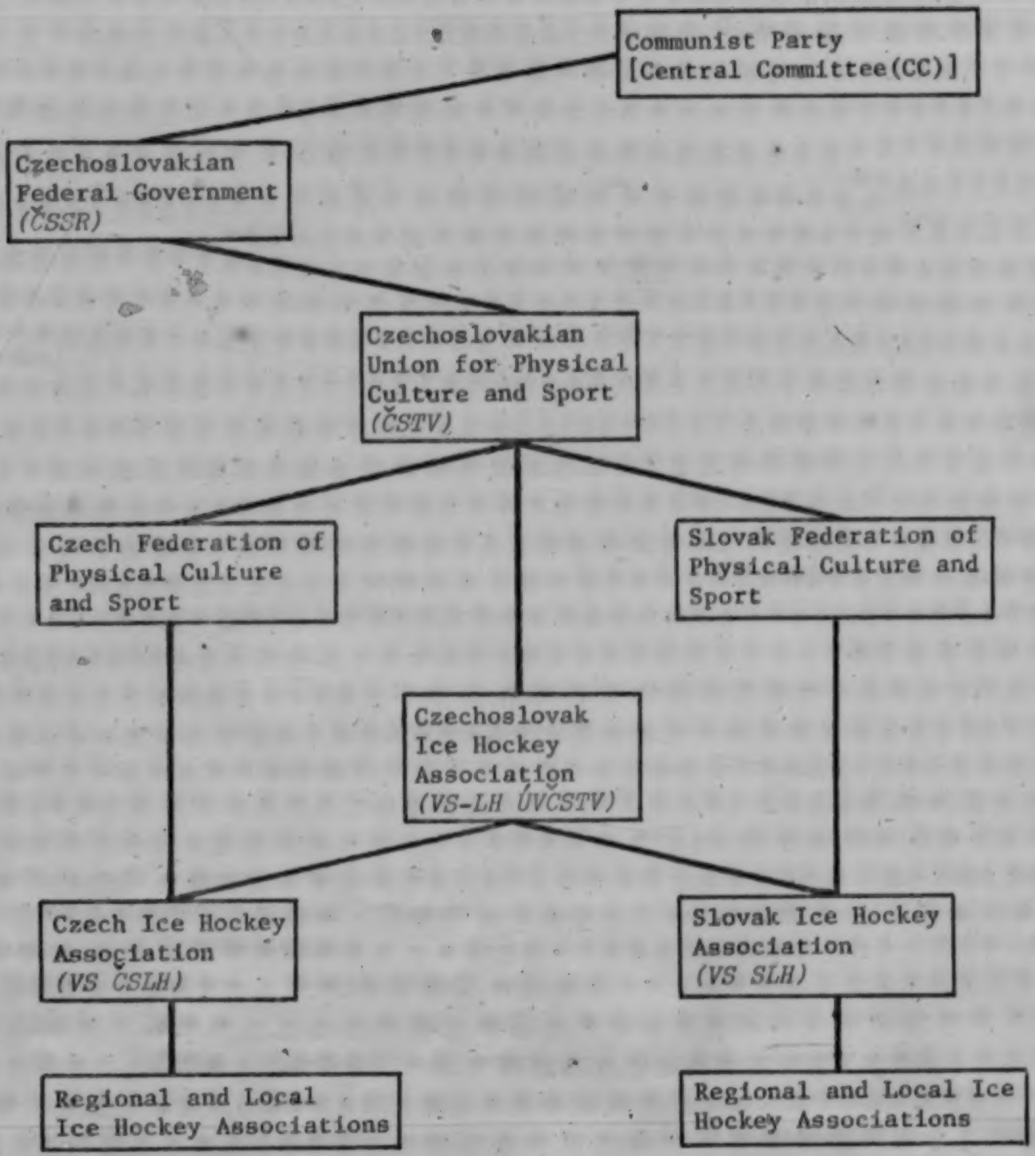

Communist Party
[Central Committee(CC)]
Czechoslovakian Federal Government (ČSSR)
Czechoslovakian Union for Physical Culture and Sport (ČSTV)
Czech Federation of Physical Culture and Sport
Slovak Federation of Physical Culture and Sport
Czechoslovak Ice Hockey Association (VS-LH ÚVČSTV)
Czech Ice Hockey Association (VS ČSLH)
Slovak Ice Hockey Association (VS SLH)
Regional and Local Ice Hockey Associations
Regional and Local Ice Hockey Associations

Illustration 3.1

Organization of Sport and Ice Hockey in Czechoslovakia[4]

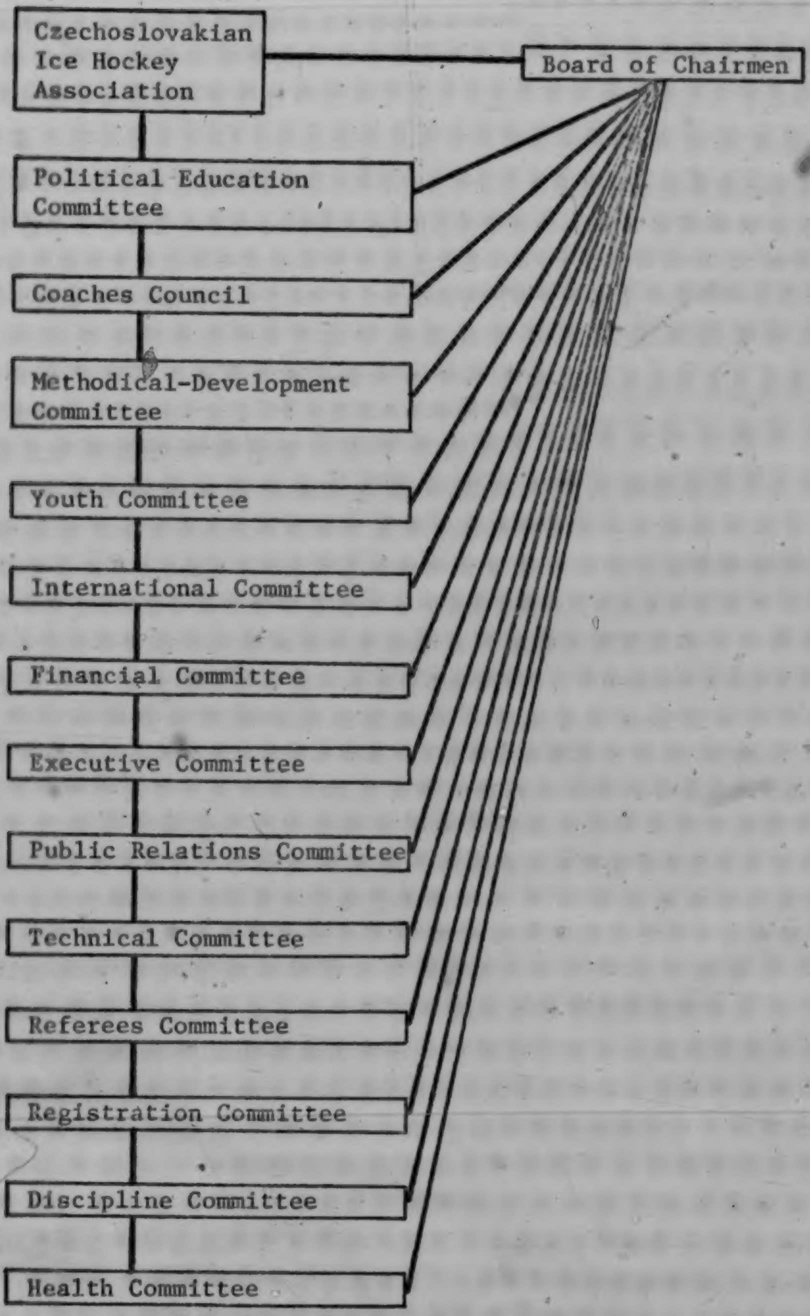

Czechoslovakian Ice Hockey Association
Board of Chairmen
Political Education Committee
Coaches Council
Methodical-Development Committee
Youth Committee
International Committee
Financial Committee
Executive Committee
Public Relations Committee
Technical Committee
Referees Committee
Registration Committee
Discipline Committee
Health Committee

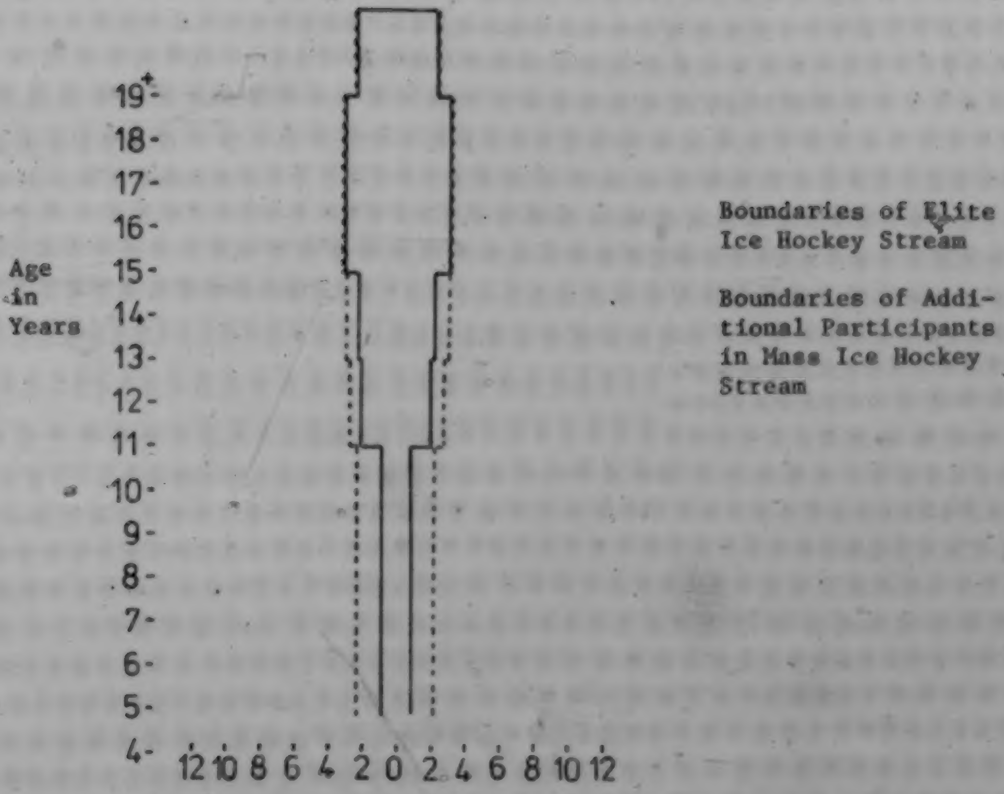
Illustration 3.2

Organization of the Czechoslovakian Ice Hockey Association[5] hockey equipment and supplies to many of the ice hockey-playing countries in the world.

GENERAL OUTLINE OF THE ICE HOCKEY SYSTEM OF CZECHOSLOVAKIA

During the 1974-75 ice hockey season there were 74,921 players registered with the Czechoslovakian Ice Hockey Federation.[8] The breakdown was as follows: Seniors registered at national level - 22,285; Juniors registered at national level - 30,988; and Older Youngsters registered at district level - 21,648. In addition there were an estimated 10,000 boys who were playing school ice hockey and youth group (Pioneer) ice hockey who were not registered at either the district or national level, unless they participated within the sports club framework and were thereby registered with the Federation.[9] Beyond these categories of players lie an undetermined number of players of all ages who have only a casual, recreational interest in participation in ice hockey. Illustration 3.3 presents an estimated profile of participants in Czechoslovakian ice hockey.

The elite stream of development is the major component of the ice hockey system in Czechoslovakia. As of 1974-75 an estimated 1,046 sports clubs were involved in organizing ice hockey programming within the elite stream.[11] The extent to which the sports clubs are involved in programming varies greatly. Factors such as size and resources (finance, membership, facilities) of the club, accessibility to ice and importance given to the ice hockey section of the club are instrumental in determining ice hockey involvement.



Participants in Tens of Thousands

5 mm = 10,000 participants

Illustration 3.3

Estimated Profile of Participants in Czechoslovakian Ice Hockey System[10]

If a boy aspires toward play for the national team or one of the Elite Federal League teams then it seems that he must join a sports club ice hockey program at a relatively early age. The case histories of top ice hockey players in Czechoslovakia indicate them to be products of the sports club programs who started training in ice hockey at a relatively young age. In reality, according to Czech authorities, there is no alternative or exception to this development procedure.[12] School ice hockey programs and youth ice hockey programs clearly appear to be given less importance.[13] Players within the sports club programs gain priority for access to artificial ice surfaces, for training under qualified ice hockey trainers and for eleven-month training in ice hockey. The limitations imposed by climate and available resources and the interest in producing top-calibre ice hockey players who will favourably represent the Czechoslovakian nation in international play combine to generate a situation which dictates the importance of efficient development of selected elite ice hockey players.

Table 3.1 presents the organization of the age classifications in the Czechoslovakian ice hockey system.

ELITE ICE HOCKEY STREAM

Usually boys commence training for ice hockey at either age five or six by joining a preparatory group at one of the sports clubs which is involved in ice hockey. There are some instances in which boys start at age four but these cases appear to be the exception rather than the rule. Similarly, it appears that age six is a more common starting point than age five.

Table 3.1

Organization of Competition and Grouping in the Czechoslovakian Ice Hockey System[14]

Category	Age Classification
Muzi (Senior): Elite-Federal League National Hockey Leagues(I) National Hockey Leagues(II) Divisional Leagues	aged 19 years and older
Dorost A (Juvenile Top Calibre)	aged 15 to 18 years
Dorost B (Juvenile Second Calibre)	aged 15 to 18 years
Starši Žáci (Older Youngsters)	aged 13 and 14 years
Mladsi Žáci (Youngsters)	aged 11 and 12 years
Přípravka (Preparatory Group)	aged 9 and 10 years
Přípravka (Younger Preparatory Groups)	aged 5 to 8 years

Before elaborating upon the programming and significant features of youth ice hockey in Czechoslovakia, a few remarks will be made regarding the sports clubs. The sports clubs are sponsored by the army (for example, *Dukla Jihlava*), unions of workers (for example, factory workers--*Sparta ČKD Praha*, railroad workers--*Lokmotiv*), factories or plants (for example, car manufacturers--*Skoda Plzen*, electronics--*Tesla Pardubice*, steel--*SONP Kladno*) and other associations interested in sports (for example, *Slovan Bratislava*, *Bohemians Praha*). The number and type of teams and groups sponsored, the number of full-time personnel (trainers and office personnel) and access to facilities are dependent upon the resources (financial, membership, status and influence) of the particular sports clubs. As the main basis for this paper the writer has chosen the two sports clubs with which he is most familiar--*Sparta ČKD Praha* and *Slavia Praha IPS*. The programming of other clubs involved in youth hockey--*Bohemians Praha, H. J. Dejvice Praha, Tesla-Praha, Červeny vrch* and *UH Sklady, Tatra Kolin*--has been observed, but less thoroughly, so reliance for information upon such matters as organization and philosophy will be based upon the two aforementioned sports clubs.

Table 3.2 presents the structure of ice hockey sections of the *Sparta ČKD Praha* (Sparta) Sports Club and *Slavia Praha IPS* (Slavia) Sports Club. There are differences between the two sports clubs which are also indicative of the variations in practice that occur in other sports clubs, most of which are smaller because they do not sponsor elite, first or second division teams.

Sports clubs normally insert notices in the *Československo Sport* newspaper which invite boys for organizational meetings and/or tryouts for entrance into their preparatory groups. Sparta, for example, invited boys aged six years to meet at the club's sports hall for an organizational meeting.[15] At the meeting the parents and boys were asked to fill out an application card which requested the following information: name, date of birth, residence, telephone number, height and weight of boy, height and weight of father, height and weight of mother, state of health of father, state of health of mother, sporting background and accomplishment of father, and sporting background and accomplishment of mother. The boys then changed into gym strip and went through a battery of tests which were

Table 3.2

Structure of the Ice Hockey Section of *Sparta ČKD Praha* Sports Club and *Slavia Praha IPS* Sports Club[17]

Age Classification	Sparta Sports Club Structure and Number of Players	Slavia Sports Club Structure and Number Players
Muzi (Senior - 19 years and older)	Elite Federal League (25)	National Hockey League I (A Team) (25) Divisional League (25) (B Team)
Dorost (Juvenile - 15 to 18 years)	A (20) B (20)	A (20) B (20)
Starší Žáci (Older youngster - 13 and 14 years)	A (25)	A (25)
Mladsi Žáci (Youngster - 11 and 12 years)	A (Top Calibre) (25) B (Second Calibre) (25-28)	B (Top Calibre) (25) C (Second Calibre) (25-30)
Připravka (Sparta) (Preparation Groups for Boys aged 5-10) *Základna* (Slavia)	A (Aged 9 and 10) (28-30) B (Aged 8 and 9) (30) C (Aged 6 and 7)	D (Boys aged 10) (30) E (Boys aged 9) (30) F (Boys aged 5-8) (30)

designed to assess motor ability, strength, balance, control, co-ordination and conduct and ability in a simple game situation. Fifteen leaders were present to assist in the measurement and assessment of the test battery items.[16] Later, when ice became available, the boys were scheduled to be assessed in basic skating ability.

Approximately thirty-five boys were accepted into the youngest preparatory group to commence a training program that is designed to achieve a "many-sided," all-round development. The emphasis in the training is towards development of various athletic abilities in addition to skill-technique in hockey. The training program includes dryland training sessions as well as ice training sessions, and is intended to be a sound, all-round physical education experience.

The training program at all levels of Czechoslovakian ice hockey is an eleven-month schedule which breaks only during the month of July for a holiday period. The extent to which the eleven-month schedule of training is followed by the preparatory groups and youngster teams appears to be dependent upon the philosophy and interest of the trainers and the sports club, and the facilities, both ice and dryland, which are available to the sports club. It would seem that more of the youngster teams follow the eleven-month regimen than do young players in the preparatory groups.

The year is divided into segments as outlined in Table 3.3. The outline in Table 3.3 assumes that ice will be available as indicated: in situations where it is not available, off-ice training is programmed until ice becomes available. Sports clubs which base their program on natural ice normally will be forced to include more dryland training in the training schedule. It is important to note that "every trainer has his own system and that the outline may give only a short general idea of the whole training procedures."[18]

Table 3.3

Schedule of Training in the Czechoslovakian Ice Hockey System[19]

Time Period	Type of Training
July 1-July 31	Holiday--Some individual and remedial training
August 1-September 30	Pre-Season--Dryland training sessions; Transition from dryland to ice training sessions.
October 1-April 30 (May 15)	Active Season--Ice training sessions with generally a lesser emphasis upon dryland training. Micro cycle training and training camps (mainly for senior teams).
May 1-June 30	Post-Season--Ice training sessions taper in first two weeks; Dryland training sessions take over and concentrate on all-round training as well as transition towards individual and remedial training concerns.

The above comment applies equally to the contents of Tables 3.4 and 3.5, which outline some specifics of the training program for the preparatory and youngster age classifications. Although the

Table 3.4

Dryland Training Program Content for Preparatory and Youngster Age Classifications in Czechoslovakian Ice Hockey[21]

Age Classification	Dryland Training Program Content
Younger Preparatory Group (Aged 5-8 years)	-Games (novelty games, football, handball) -Swimming -Gymnastics -Movement tasks with emphasis upon jumping, climbing, supporting, throwing aspects -Running -Shooting practice
Preparatory Group Aged 9 and 10 years)	-Program as outlined above for 5-8 year old preparation group with more advanced tasks and additional items -Additions (games such as table tennis, hockey, sprint running (100-300 metres); rope climbing, exercises directed toward specific body parts or patterns
Youngster Group (Aged 11 and 12 years)	-Games (football, handball, basketball, volleyball, table tennis, novelty games) -Gymnastics with increasing emphasis on tasks demanding strength and body support -Exercises
Youngster Group (Aged 11 and 12 years)	-Partner work in challenges and stunts which tax strength and fitness -Swimming -Running (sprinting, interval work and endurance work) -Jumping program

Table 3.5

Ice Training Program Content for Preparatory and Youngster Age Classifications in Czechoslovakian Ice Hockey[21]

Age Classification	Ice Training Program Content
Younger Preparatory (Aged 5-8 years)	-Skating basics (falling with safety, forward, correct body positioning, basic stroking, turning both directions, braking (stopping), skating with a stick. A limited contact with backward skating -Stick control with emphasis upon correct grip -Speed skating in teams in competitive relays based upon various tasks -1 vs 1 keepaway -Zone scrimmage (3 vs 3, 4 vs 4, 5 vs 5)
Preparatory Group (Aged 9 and 10 years)	-Skating emphasis (forward and backward skating, turning, starting, stopping, falling to knees and up, skating with puck). More emphasis on endurance skating for the ten-year-olds -Stick handling with puck -Forehand and backhand shots (Golf-slap shots for ten-year-olds) -Situational play -Basic rules (for example, off-side) -Speed skating relays using combination of skill techniques -Zone scrimmage -Advanced situational play for ten-year-olds (starting an attack, power play, shorthanded play, triangle play) -Goalkeepers receive thorough instruction in all situations (ten-year-olds)
Youngster Group (Aged 11 and 12 years)	-Continuation on practice of basic skill techniques in skating. Practice in the form of training drills. Many drills for agility skating. Higher tempo and more complex tasks set for boys in execution of all skill-techniques -Puck control in high tempo agility situations

Table 3.5 (continued)

Age Classification	Ice Training Program Content
	-All types of shots -Situational play in high tempo drills for all situations -Zone scrimmage -Game play scrimmage -Special work on positional skills (goaltending, defensive play, offensive play)

outline is based primarily upon the Slavia and Sparta programs, the writer observed a number of other ice sessions organized for boys in the preparatory and youngster age classifications in other sports clubs which appeared to be quite similar in content to the Slavia and Sparta programs outlined.

In spite of the relative congruence of program content among the sports clubs observed, there is much divergence in terms of methods and means of achieving the desired outcomes and in quality of programming. For example, some trainers have been attempting to teach the younger preparatory group the skills of skating, puck control and stick control in an integrated manner whereas others are teaching the skills in discrete segments. Some sessions observed could be rated, in the author's subjective opinion, as outstanding, whereas others were a "waste of time." The most important single determinant appeared to be the quality of leadership exerted on the ice. The training sessions for the younger preparatory groups in the Sparta sports club were usually conducted by three leaders (minimum of two) who were well-organized and enthusiastic towards the learners. By contrast there were some training sessions for other clubs which were poorly organized, monotonous and inefficient. Many of the workouts for the preparatory groups were conducted at 5:30 a.m. or 6:00 a.m. because of the pressure upon the four indoor artificial ice surfaces in Prague.[20] Although many of the training sessions were conducted in the early morning and before school, the majority were conducted in the afternoons and evenings beginning at 2:00 p.m. and running through until midnight. Training with a sports club is accepted by Communist youth group authorities as a suitable youth activity, so boys are allowed to substitute sports club training for other forms of activity in the after-school time period.

Trainers working with the preparatory and youngster age groups in Prague tended to be well-qualified in the sense that they had taken specialized courses of study as ice hockey trainers and/or they had an extensive top-level playing background which was combined in some instances with specialized study in ice hockey coaching. Some had taken the five-year ice hockey specialization course offered by the Ice Hockey Department of the Faculty of Physical Training and Sport at Charles University in Prague, and a greater number had taken or were taking an extramural three-year ice hockey course for trainers in the field which is also offered by *FTVŠ - UK*.[22] Consequently many of the trainers in the larger and more ambitious sports clubs sponsoring ice hockey held their First Degree Coaching Certificate and seemed to put their knowledge to good use.

Many other trainers were former players or people who had logged much practical training experience, while still others were essentially volunteers who had entered coaching with interest and enthusiasm, so the situation regarding coaching qualifications seems to indicate a range of qualifications.

Full-time trainers are employed by sports clubs to work with Elite Federal League, National League and in some Divisional League teams. Children's and Youth ice hockey trainers tended to be part-time, but there were some trainers who worked full-time with the children and in some cases, with other sports club business. Outside of Prague and Bratislava the coaching situation is not as desirable because fewer trainers have more than the minimum of the aforementioned qualifications.[23]

The frequency and duration of training sessions and games and the type and extent of competition are outlined in Table 3.6. The material outlined is a composite based on what occurs in the Sparta and Slavia programs.

Some of the other clubs have not been able to secure ice time for three ice sessions per week so they work out a minimum of twice per week. Dryland training sessions are often held when ice time is not available, although it seems that few of the preparatory or youngster groups regularly schedule dryland training sessions during the active season period. Slavia expected their players to voluntarily perform a daily regimen of thirty squat thrusts, thirty push-ups, pull-ups, rope climbing or some form of climbing, wrist-rolling with one to one-and-one-half kilos of weight. The trainers from Slavia Sports Club expected to hold regularly-scheduled dryland training sessions in 1975-76 when construction would be finished on all the components of their new facility. Slavia officials are encouraged towards more extensive and intensive training for their young hockey players because their *Základna D* group has already surpassed their *Mladši Žáci C* group as a result of improvements and extension of the training regimen.

Table 3.6

Frequency of Training Sessions; Number of Games; and Type of Competition for Preparatory and Youngster Age Classifications in Czechoslovakian Ice Hockey[24]

Age Classification	Frequency and Duration of Training Sessions Per Week	Number of Formal Games in Season	Type and Extent of Competition
Younger Preparatory Group (Aged 5-8 years)	3x45 to 60 min.	None	Zone scrimmage in training sessions only
Preparatory Group (Aged 9 and 10)	3x60 to 90 min.	Approximately 10 to 12 games. Game length 3x20 min. straight time.	Friendship matches with other sports club teams. Intramural or extramuarl play. *Miniliga*. One tournament at end of season.
Youngster Group (Aged 11 and 12 years)	Category II 3x90 min.	II - 15 to 25 games. Game length 3x15 min. straight time.	Friendship matches with other club teams. Compete for Prague Championship or similar town or regional championship near end of season.
	Category I 3x90 min.	I - 40 games plus 4 tournaments. Game length 3x15 min. or 3.25 min. straight time.	Play in second league for *Žáci* in Prague. Compete for Prague Championship or town or regional championship.

Generally, the training sessions on the ice followed a format based upon repetition of drills which touched upon all the components of a skill technique. Usually a warm-up was included at the start of a practice. Stretching exercises directed towards the groins, shoulders, stomach and back were usually done prior to an increase in the tempo of the skating. In a typical practice for the younger preparatory groups in the Sparta and Slavia programs, the boys went through the following aspects of skating: forward skating, turning (skating turns, "mohawk" turns, sharp gliding turns), starting (forward and sideways), stopping (snowplow, two foot parallel skid stop), backward skating, and agility skating. In the majority of these practices the skating segment comprised between two-thirds and three-quarters of the practice duration. Other tasks such as puck control, shooting, competitive skating relays and zone scrimmage comprised the remaining practice time.

During the ice training sessions for the preparatory group, aged nine and ten, the emphasis upon skating was maintained, as approximately one-half of the practice time was spent in drills stressing skating. Considerable repetition of the basic components of skating was done in a higher tempo with drills which stressed change of direction, quick reaction and agility skating abilities. The remainder of the practice included a variety of activities such as puck control and situation drills. Usually about fifteen minutes at the end of the training session was devoted to zone scrimmage or game condition scrimmage.

The ice training sessions for the youngster group programmed less time for practice of individual, discrete fundamental skill-techniques such as skating, puck control (stickhandling, passing, pass-receiving and shooting), but tended to integrate these skill-techniques into combination drills or situation drills. More time was given to scrimmage during the youngster practices, but this rarely exceeded more than one-quarter of the practice duration. Approximately one-third of the practice duration was used to practise situation play, positional play and aspects of team play.

The residual impression of the training sessions may be summed up in the following comments. The approach to training sessions is generally a serious one--to both the boys and their trainers. The quality of the practices varied, mainly in accordance with the organization and enthusiasm of the leader: overall, however, most of the practices were efficiently run and seemed to evoke the desired results in skill-technique development.[25] Most of the young boys exhibited a sound grounding in the fundamental skill-techniques. When the training sessions of the younger preparatory group, preparatory group and youngster group are set alongside the training sessions observed for the older youngster and juvenile age classifications, it seemed that the aforementioned sessions were superior in most regards.

If the programs of the few sports clubs observed were indicative of the total picture in all youth development programming in Czechoslovakia, then a large measure of the success of that country in international ice hockey could be assumed to be based upon the sound foundation of skill-technique developed in the first three levels of the Czechoslovakian elite ice hockey system.

MASS ICE HOCKEY STREAM

> On the other hand, these really excellent Czechoslovak achievements, which place as small a country as Czechoslovakia among the most successful countries in sports competition, have their shortcomings.
>
> The training and all preparation of Czechoslovak athletes as well as the costs tied up to international representation represent large sums of money. These funds might be used to support public recreation and physical education.
>
> Top sportsmen and National team representants must train many hours every day. They have reserved many gym halls, swimming pools and other sports facilities for almost whole days which means that public admittance is minimal. Thus, the real public physical recreation and sports recreation is cut down in contrast to the prewar (W.W.II) period.[26]

Therein lie the dysfunctional aspects of concentrating heavily upon elite development in sport. A program such as the mass ice hockey stream which stresses participation, involvement and participant-centered outcomes seems unable to compete for resources which are needed to produce representative sportsmen. The resources--measured in terms of facilities, trained leadership, finances, time, commitment--available for ice hockey programming in Czechoslovakia are ostensibly already in short supply for accommodating the demands of and interest in elite development so there seems to be next to nothing available for carrying on a viable mass ice hockey program. In sum, the mass ice hockey program, although espoused and seen as desirable by Czechoslovakian officials, does not exist.

SOME NOTEWORTHY FEATURES IN THE ORGANIZATION AND DEVELOPMENT OF ICE HOCKEY IN CZECHOSLOVAKIA

There are a number of features inherent in the children's and youth development programming which lend a distinctive stamp to Czechoslovakian ice hockey. This section will present the features with little attempt being made to do more than briefly list and explain each item.

Although boys start their training in ice hockey as early as age five, they normally do not specialize into set positions before age nine or ten. If a boy wishes to play goal he normally does not have the opportunity to do so while he is in the younger preparatory group. He joins all the other boys as a regular participant in all the fundamental skill-technique drills and zone scrimmages. In some sports clubs he commences his training at age nine or ten years under the guidance of a goaltending trainer who is responsible for the development of goaltenders in all age classifications. In other, less advanced or endowed sports clubs, the boy commences his goaltending specialization in the same manner as the forwards and defensemen; that is, as a member of a group under one trainer who is responsible for developing all positional skills. The goaltending trainer at the Slavia sports club, for example, worked the goaltenders separately during the regular training session and also during special goaltending training sessions. In both instances, the program was excellent--very thorough, well-organized and technically sound.

Boys who show particular aptitude in ice hockey may advance ahead of their age grouping. In the competition conducted at the preparatory and youngster age classifications it is quite common to see a wide spread in size and developmental level (as exemplified by strength, ability in skating, shooting and individual struggles for the puck). These differences appeared to be the results of intra-age variations as much as they were inter-age variations.

There are very few special rules for children's or youth ice hockey. Rules prohibiting, for example, curved sticks and body checking at certain age levels of play are not implemented. Curved sticks are apparently used exclusively at all levels above the younger preparatory group. At the younger preparatory level many boys use them and others presumably would if it were not for the fact that straight sticks are the least expensive and most abundantly available. In Slovakia, some districts are experimenting with a rule which is attempting to provide equality of ice time. Players from each of the youth teams are ranked in category I, II or III, depending upon their ability level within their team. Units (five players who normally play together) from each category then compete against the similarly ranked unit from the opposing team. Each category is given equal ice time during the game. In Prague and the Czech portion of the country, there are apparently no rules of this nature, although in "Friendship" matches involving the Slavia preparatory and youngster teams the Slavia trainers (and the rival club trainers who act as referees) automatically whistle a change of players every three minutes unless a natural stoppage in play occurs near the three-minute mark.

The European ice hockey concept of building cohesive units of five players who will usually play together was prevalent in both preparatory and youngster age class competition. The initiation of the concepts of interchangeability of position and a style of play emphasizing flow relationships to capitalize upon situations occurred more commonly at the top calibre of the youngster age class. Some of the advanced teams in the preparatory group exhibited some semblance of these concepts whereas other advanced teams played a style based upon relatively fixed positional responsibilities. Although the concept of cooperative team play is synonymous with Czechoslovakian play at the top levels of their ice hockey system, cooperative team play was frequently overshadowed by individual play in the younger age categories of play. Systemic play is taught, but a better young player often controls the puck for a period of time too lengthy to be compatible with effective team play. Better players usually received more playing time than players of lesser ability, although the discrepancy was most often not inordinate.

The full ice surface was used for all game competition at all age levels. Only during the frequently used zone scrimmage drill was a lesser amount of ice used by the players. As might be expected, players in the preparatory group and the second calibre of the youngster age class usually "chased the puck" and it appears that only in the more disciplined top calibre youngster teams was this temptation lessened.

The skill-technique exhibited by young players was generally on a high level. It is axiomatic that some players should display superior skill: overall, however, the fundamental skill-techniques were well executed. There appear to be certain tendencies which occur in the training sessions and the game play of all the age classifications. Golf shots (slap shots) were the most commonly practised shot during training sessions and were the most prevalently used shot during games. Wrist shots (sweep shots) were practised infrequently during training sessions but were overlooked in drill, scrimmage and game situations, unless the trainer was insistent upon their use. The backhand shot was essentially a non-entity, as it was not practised, nor was it used in games except in situations where no alternative on the forehand existed. In fifty-five Czechoslovakian ice training sessions, the backhand shot was seen being practised only once--in one drill during a training session of the Sparta Elite Federal League team.[28]

It seemed significant that ball hockey or street hockey was played very widely in Czechoslovakia. This feature seems to illustrate the keen interest in ice hockey and perhaps also a desire to play in spite of difficulties in garnering ice time. The extensive ball hockey play may be seen to contribute towards and reinforce complementary skill-technique and tactical learnings.

The skating style taught by Czechoslovakian trainers stresses a lowered body position with the knee of the support leg over top or in front of the toe of the same leg. This body position is stressed in order to facilitate agility skating. Another item emphasized is use of the skates to control the puck in concert with stickhandling, to relay the puck to a teammate in a passing situation and to receive a pass without breaking stride as another skill-technique which is practised to aid puck control by providing a larger, and in some instances safer, target for the passer. Other aspects of puck control which are stressed include: stickhandling while agility skating in high tempo and direct return passing without stickhandling. Many of the drills used by the elite and national teams were the same as those employed in the youth hockey levels focused upon in this paper.

These drills have, in many instances, been established by research activity. Certainly the designs for the work-rest regimen and the stressing during training sessions are the result of Czechoslovakian and Soviet research activity. Many of the aspects of situational play, positional play and systemic play have been rationalized and improved in light of research findings. Although most of the research has been conducted upon players in the older age classifications, leadership development clinics and publications have presumably communicated the latest information to trainers working with the younger age classifications. It has been said that Czechoslovakian ice hockey has for many years been the most studied, most analyzed and most scientifically played ice hockey in the world. The number of publications--research reports, technical papers, curriculum guides, books, articles--would seem to support this notion.

It would appear that not a great deal of research effort has been directed specifically towards youth ice hockey. In 1963, Tintéra studied "The Influence of Long-Term Ice Hockey on the Development of the Organism and on Performance in 11-18 Year Old Boys,"[29] and determined that the optimal time for training seemed to be the age thirteen to sixteen years time period. His study seemed to indicate that: "The way to achieve good performance in adults does not lie in constant extension of technical ice hockey training with ever younger and younger pupils and even youngsters below the age of ten."[30] It would seem that in spite of Tintéra's postulation, the training process has been extended towards an ever younger initiation, and that practices of the leading sports clubs which currently serve as models, point to an initiation into training by at least age six, and into competition by age nine.

A research project under the auspices of the Sparta Sports Club is being undertaken to compare a specially recruited group of athletes with the normal group who are selected at age six in the manner previously outlined in this paper. The physical education teachers of all elementary schools in Prague will be contacted for recommendations of their top physical education students and young athletes. It is hoped that approximately two hundred and fifty talented boys will be identified and contacted, and that thirty-five may be selected who show interest in training in ice hockey with Sparta, have parental consent, and who score highest on the ice testing and screening test battery. The plan is to conduct a longitudinal study to monitor the progress of these special trainees in relation to the normal entry group.

A significant feature of the Czechoslovakian ice hockey system is the interplay between theoreticians and researchers at the universities and practitioners in the field. Research studies, curriculum outlines, cooperative ventures in focusing upon concerns and problems, and frequent consultations have been accomplished as a result of this interplay. Psychologists, physiologists, anthropometrists, sociologists, kinesiologists and physical educators have been involved in this process. Many of the standing committees of the Czechoslovakian Ice Hockey Federation are comprised of joint membership. The Methodological Committee, for example, is formed with representation from the university community as well as from practising trainers and hockey authorities. Their new "systematic and unitary" curriculum will presumably reflect this cross-section of knowledge and experience.

There are a number of issues which concern children's and youth ice hockey development and evoke strong opinion. Some of these issues are: the optimal age for initiating ice hockey training for boys; the optimum age for commencing formal competition; the type and extent of training which should be undertaken at various ages; the extent to which serious adult-type training, organization and competition should be undertaken by young boys; the later effects of training, organization and competition at an early age; the importance of screening on a physical stature basis; the whole question of rationalizing the identification and selection process for prospective ice hockey players; the concern that standardized and rationalized expectations are creating stereotyped play and players; and the concern that opportunities for mass ice hockey have been usurped by elite ice hockey interests.

Problems also receive their share of attention. Some of the main problems confronting children's and youth ice hockey in Czechoslovakia are the following: the need for more facilities; the need to provide more opportunities for boys to play ice hockey at the elite level and especially the mass ice hockey level; and the need for more trained coaches to work at the children's and youth hockey levels.

SOME CONCLUDING REMARKS

Ice hockey in Czechoslovakia has a relatively long history and appears to have deep roots in the Czechoslovakian sporting culture. Currently, ice hockey is the major winter spectator sport and commands much interest and attention in the media.

To remain competitive in the face of obstacles such as climate, population numbers and availability of resources, the Czechoslovakian ice hockey strategy has been one of thorough and systematic development of available talent through concentration of resources upon an elite group of athletes. The results of this strategy seem impressive and give evidence of value in studying Czechoslovakian ice hockey in depth. Lessons in efficiency and sound organization in player development and leadership development, practical research activity, scientifically-based intensive training and the importance of having a favorable environment for advancing ice hockey may be learned from the study of the Czechoslovakian ice hockey system.

CHAPTER III FOOTNOTES

[1] The word, "Sokol" was selected because the falcon ("*sokol*") was the symbol of swiftness, activity and freedom of Slavic nations. The ideological base for the Sokol movement rested upon the concept of freedom, which Tyrš considered to be humanity's greatest possession, and the necessity for a citizen and a nation to be physically, spiritually and morally disciplined and prepared to defend their freedom. The Sokol system of physical training employed various gymnastic exercises, organizational and ideological concepts as a means of achieving a re-education of the nation. The Sokol Physical Training Units and the parent organization were broken up in 1948 because of political undesirability in the view of the Communist regime. It is worthy of note that the "Slet" or "All-Sokol" Festivals were re-named "Spartakiads" and re-introduced in 1955 to serve the dialectical materialism of Marxism-Leninism. Sport continues to furnish a safety valve for a form of aggression described by Konrad Lorenz as "collective militant enthusiasm." (Konrad Lorenz, *On Aggression* [London: Methuen and Co. Ltd., 1967], p. 223).

[2] Philip Goodhart and Chris Chataway, *War Without Weapons* (London: W. H. Allen, 1968).

[3] Physical culture is defined as the systematic and all-sided development of the working people in the interest of preparation for labor and defense of the country. Definition from Luis Bisquertt, "Physical Education in Czechoslovakia," *Physical Education Around the World*, ed. Wm. Johnson, Monograph No. 6 (Phi Epsilon Kappa: Indianapolis, 1973), p. 22.

[4] ČSTV, VS-LH ÚVČSTV and all other Czechoslovakian organizations reflect the union of two national identities--the Czech and the Slovak. Roughly two-thirds of the population is Czech and one-third Slovak so there is a tendency for the Czech nation to dominate most activities. Information supplied by Czechoslovakian Ice Hockey Federation.

[5] Antonin Himl, "30 Years of Building Socialism," *Czechoslovak Life* (5: 1975), p. 23.

[6] Information supplied by Czechoslovakian Ice Hockey Federation. The composition of the committees includes membership from the Czech Ice Hockey Association and the Slovak Ice Hockey Association.

[7] Of the 102 artificial ice stadia, 44 were covered (but not necessarily walled), and 58 were open-air facilities.

[8] Of the 74,921 registered players, 53,273 were registered at national level (that is, the senior players and junior players), and the remaining 21,648 players (youngster players) were registered at the district level. Figures provided by Czechoslovakian Ice Hockey Federation.

[9] Of the estimated 10,000 boys it would seem in reality that many of the better players are registered with the Federation at the Junior or Youngster level because they play for sports club teams as well as school or youth group teams. The exact number of players who overlap cannot be determined for the sport of ice hockey. Estimate is based upon collation of responses from interviewees in *ČSTV*, *VS-LH ÚVČSTV*, *VSČSLH*, *FTVŠ-UK* (*Fakulta Tělesné Výchovy a Sportu - Universita Karlova*, Faculty of Physical Education and Sport, Charles University, Prague), Associations or Organizations, Prague, 1975.

[10] Notes:

a. Estimates are based upon the known numbers of participants in certain categories of play (see figures provided by *VS-LH ÚVČSTV*, extrapolation of profiles of sports clubs and composite impressions gleaned from questions which focussed upon mass ice hockey participation.

b. Age category, 5-10 years, represents the estimated numbers of participants in the sports club preparation groups within the elite ice hockey stream.

c. Youngsters are registered commencing at age 13 and 14 (*Starší Žáci*).

c. Age categories, 11 and 12 years and 13 and 14 years, in the mass ice hockey stream have been estimated to include 5,000 casual or recreational participants in addition to the 10,000 who are involved with school-based ice hockey and Young Pioneer youth organization ice hockey.

e. The boundaries for the mass ice hockey stream have been added to the elite ice hockey stream to provide a composite profile of the entire ice hockey situation.

f. Estimates of numbers of participants (1974-75):

Categories	Elite Ice Hockey Stream	Mass Ice Hockey Stream
Senior	22,285	1,000
Juvenile	30,988	3,000
Older Youngsters	21,648	7,500
Youngsters	20,000	7,500
Preparation Group	10,000	15,000

[11] *WM* Program (Ice Hockey World Championship), *Eishockey Welt-und Europa-Meisterschaft*, 3-19,4,1975 (Munchen and Dusseldorf).

[12] For example, Vladimir Kostka, player with *Sparta ČKD Praha* Elite Federal League team, indicated that all the Sparta team could be traced back to an early involvement with various sports club programs. Other interviews revealed the same pattern of involvement.

[13] In Prague the school hockey program, *Stadion Mládeže*, functioned on artificial ice only one morning per week and involved boys aged 14, 15 and 16 years in a tournament format. Only six or eight schools were involved in the program and many of the players also played

for sports club teams. The standard of play was not comparable to the standard present in the sports club programs in the elite ice hockey stream. The organization and objectives of the program seemed to be geared more towards participation and recreational outcomes than serious competition and skill development outcomes. Two of the winning teams seemed more in line with competitive and skill development aims and must be classed as serious competitors.

[14] Information provided by the Czechoslovakian Ice Hockey Association. From observation and discussion it appears that some boys four years old start with the *Přípravka* (younger preparatory group). Their overall numbers are small, but the author observed two or three four-year-olds in each of the five younger preparation groups of the various sports clubs.

[15] The meeting was held in February for entrance into training after the July holiday period in 1975. Many boys five years of age attended, as did some who were aged four years. In all, forty boys attended the meeting, but officials stated that many more would turn out for a trial when the actual training started. Normally about one hundred boys are expected to try out for the preparatory group.

[16] Included in the assessment were a timed, twenty-metre sprint in which two boys ran at the same time; a timed obstacle course which included running, jumping, climbing, balancing and rolling; a timed volley of passes (and catches) to a target on the wall; and a simple game somewhat like "murder ball." The game was employed to provide an indication of maturity, ability, involvement and aggressiveness in game play.

[17] Information supplied by officials of *Sparta ČKD Praha* Sports Club and *Slavia Praha IPS* Sports Club.

Notes:

a. In addition, Sparta sponsors a minor sports club with its complement of teams.

b. The Elite Federal League is a twelve-team league which is the highest level of ice hockey in Czechoslovakia. The National Leagues are in reality the second and third levels of competition. The Divisional Leagues are the fourth level of competition and operate in a more localized manner in Czechoslovakia.

c. Sparta terms their age groups from age 5-10 as *Přípravka* groups whereas Slavia calls them *Základna*.

[18] Comment by Mr. Tisý, trainer of *Základna* Groups D, E and F in Slavia Sports Club, to the writer during an interview, February 1, 1975.

[19] Notes:

a. The active season schedule for Elite Federal League teams extends until approximately May 15.

b. Micro cycle training or training camps are intensive training periods wherein dryland training is emphasized. These micro cycle periods are usually seven to eleven days in duration whereas the training camps are normally of lesser duration (two to four days).

c. Some clubs, for example, Slavia, hold a summer sports camp for their players during June at a site in the countryside. An extensive games program and exercise program is augmented by on-site activities such as cross-country running, field games and swimming.

[20] One of the four ice surfaces is scheduled primarily for figure skating so there are effectively only three arenas giving priority to ice hockey. Ice hockey, figure skating and public skating are the three main users competing for ice time.

[21] The emphasis within each of the program outlines on Ice Training is primarily upon skating, while in the Dryland Training programs, considerable variety seemed evident in the weekly and monthly schedules.

[22] The same five-year specialization and three-year extramural part-time specialization in ice hockey is available in Slovakia FTVŠ at Comenius University in Bratislava. Special retraining and updating clinics are offered at least once or twice each year at both Charles University and Comenius University. These latter refresher clinics are organized by the Czechoslovakian Ice Hockey Association and are designed to complement their educational offerings produced by the Methodological Committee.

[23] The larger sports clubs and sports clubs having top level senior teams are generally in a better position to support more qualified trainers to work with their programs. The Czechoslovakian Ice Hockey Association are concerned with the disparities and are hoping that the new curriculum guideline and continuing program of travelling clinics will improve the situation. Raising the standards of trainers is perceived as an important priority of *VS-LH ÚVČSTV*.

[24] Notes:

a. The younger preparatory group training sessions are frequently conducted on small ice areas, such as one-half of the rink or on small auxiliary surfaces such as the 15 x 60 metre auxiliary surface at the *Zimní* Stadium in Prague. Very effective workouts were conducted on these small surfaces.

b. The *miniliga* referred to under the Preparatory Group heading takes place within the Slavia program. It is an intramural competition among teams within the preparatory groups aged 9 and 10 years. Approximately 15 minutes of each training session is devoted to this competition.

c. In the Youngster age classification, Category II refers to the second calibre of ability (B) whereas Category I refers to the top calibre of ability and competition (A).

d. If sufficient time on ice is not available, then games are fifty minutes straight time. The times listed on the table are taken from the regulations book for ice hockey.

[25] The "desired results" are presumed because of the writer's impression of a fairly high standard of execution and results achieved in the training sessions and games observed.

[26] Bisquertt, op. cit., p. 30. The quotation from Bisquertt's article is referring to all the sporting successes of Czechoslovakia in the last twenty-five years.

[27] A complete discussion on the situation juxtaposing elite sport and mass sport is contained within the following two articles:

Hanuš Weber, "A Lot is Too Little," *Czechoslovak Life* (March, 1967), pp. 22, 23. and

Antonín Himl, "Interview of the Month," *Czechoslovak Life* (Number 7, 1972), pp. 14, 15.

[28] Consult Table II of Appendix A for a breakdown of the observations.

[29] Jaroslav Tintěra, *The Influence of Long-Term Ice Hockey Training on the Development of the Organism and on Performance in 11-18 Year Old Boys* (Prague: Universita Karlova), pp. 95-122.

[30] Ibid., p. 120.

Chapter IV

THE ORGANIZATION AND DEVELOPMENT OF ICE HOCKEY DURING CHILDHOOD IN THE SOVIET UNION

INTRODUCTION

> In 1954 the USSR team captained by Vsevolod Bobrov shattered the myth about the invincibility of Canadians (true, then there were Canadian amateur players). Created in response to this was a new legend, a legend about the absolute superiority of Canadian professionals. But in 1972 Soviet players proved that this, too, was nothing more than a legend. The USSR-Canada series have become a milestone in the history of hockey.[1]

When one considers that the first game of ice hockey (or Canadian hockey or shinny as it was first called in the USSR before the myth was despoiled) in the Soviet Union was played in Moscow in 1932, by a combined team from *Metallurg* and *Spartak* (Two Russian hockey [bandy] teams) and a German trade union (Fikhte) ice hockey team, one finds cause to reflect upon the impressive evolution of ice hockey in the Soviet Union.[2] The German team also played a game with the Central House of the Red Army team, but the hiatus caused by World War II delayed the next real game of ice hockey until 1946 when a group of physical education students put on a demonstration or exhibition game following a league bandy match in Moscow.

"Love at first sight,"[3] spectator interest and media interest, and the desire to become the best have propelled ice hockey in the Soviet Union to prominence as the leading winter sport. From the hybridized encounter of the two types of ice games in Moscow, ice hockey has progressed to become the ice game which prevails in the Western European area of the Soviet Union. With the odd vestige, such as the *Dinamo* Sports Club bandy team in Moscow and single teams in other Western area centers of population, bandy has retreated to remain the main ice sport in many centers of population east of the Ural mountains. Sverdlovsk, Khabarovsk, Kemerovo, Irkutsk, Arkhangelsk, Novosibirsk, Ulianov and Alma Ata are some main centers of popularity for the "Russian hockey." Novosibirsk is perhaps an indication of future developments as it now also has a team in the Superior League in ice hockey. Sverdlovsk has a Division II team so the pattern of ice hockey becoming established east of the Urals seems to be growing. Much of the northern and central area of the Soviet Union has climatic conditions which will sustain natural ice so these areas have been involved with ice games for the longest time period. The caprice of climate is being overcome by an expanded program of construction of artificial ice surfaces of an indoor and outdoor nature. There are currently fifty-seven indoor and five outdoor artificial ice surfaces in the Soviet Union.[4] Ice hockey is moving southward with the development of new facilities.

Championships in bandy were held as early as 1890 in Leningrad and by 1907 there were fifteen teams operating in Leningrad.[5] The League of Russian Hockey was founded in 1898 in St. Petersburg (now Leningrad) and flourished uncontested until the mid-1920s when the 1923 victory of a Moscow-based team signalled the first loss and eventual shift of playing power to Moscow. The title remained in

Moscow until 1950 when the Sverdlovsk players garnered the laurels and took them to the new stronghold of bandy east of the Urals.[6]

> Our ice hockey owes very much to bandy. There were no wobbly, timid steps after birth. On the contrary, it took to a very brisk start and there was no stopping it. The baby also helped itself to tactical arsenal of big brother and copies some of his technique.[7]

Speed, manoeuvering and passing as well as skilled, experienced players from Latvia (post-W.W.II) were transferred as the basis of a new "school" of international ice hockey.[8] To those ingredients were added a "high athletic level," a new conceptualization of the game, and the presence of Anatoli Tarasov, the "Father of Soviet Ice Hockey."

Ice hockey appears to have captivated the Soviets and the reason may lie in this statement by Ryzhkov,[9] when in reference to ice hockey he states: "This is a daredevil game, you need guts to play: space age speeds and fierce clashes to your heart's desire. If you pass the test of ice hockey it means that you are a real man." Regardless of birth pains and motivation the results of the Soviet "school" of international ice hockey clearly indicate that ice hockey has found very fertile conditions in the sporting fabric of the USSR.

Soviet ice hockey officials take considerable pride in their progress towards the pinnacle of international ice hockey play but they plainly will not rest until they have achieved the summit. The role, purpose and motivations underlying participation in ice hockey have instrumental ends in the international arena of competition among nations. Ice hockey is representative sport and serves the instrumental ends outlined in the previous chapter on Czechoslovia. The meaning in the Soviet view seems clear in the following:

> Hockey has converted all people, from schoolboys to their grandfathers and grandmothers, into practically equal partners and true allies of our players.
>
> If it could be possible to relieve our players of the pain of injuries suffered as a result of hard-fought championship battles, our fans would unhesitatingly take this pain upon themselves, demanding nothing but one thing as a reward . . .
>
> Twelve times the Soviet national flag was hoisted over the Stadiums of Stockholm, Cortina d'Ampezzo, Innsbruck, Tampere, Ljubljana, Vienna, Grenoble, Geneva, Sapporo after Olympic tournaments and world championships, and side by side with our hockey players, also hardly managing to repress their tears of joy, millions of Soviet ice hockey fans stood up at attention. And both the people who are on friendly terms with the puck and those who have never as much as even touched a stick have always been ready to bear anything for these blissful moments.
>
> According to the rules, only 22 persons can be included in the protocol indicating the line-up of the Soviet national team. Don't believe this figure. Multiply it, instead, by a hundred thousand or so and you will get a real idea of wherein the strength of Soviet ice hockey lies and what it is proud of.[10]

While the foregoing may be something of a motivational and emotional statement, the succinct statements by Brusovansky,[11] that the aim of sport is to educate the people in communism, and by Sturzbecker which summarizes the state role in Soviet sport, leave no doubt about the purpose and direction of the sports movement in the USSR.

> In essence, physical culture and sport are an extension of the state, politically and ideologically. The organization, administration, supervision, financial support, selection of leaders, construction of facilities, controls of award systems, and selections of athletes for international competitions is considered just as important as any other function of government. Through central committees, the Soviets are involved in all levels of every activity in sport and physical culture.[12]

The mechanics for directing sporting endeavour emanate from the Central (or All-Union) Committee on Physical Culture and Sport (hereinafter referred to as the Central Sports Committee) which is attached to the USSR Council of Ministers. The Ice Hockey Department, a department of the Winter Sports Section of the Central Sports Committee, is responsible for carrying out all the state functions listed by Sturzebecker in addition to central planning and organization of methodical concerns for the direction of ice hockey in the USSR. The Soviet Ice Hockey Federation, charted in Illustration 4.1, has been described as a social organization, bringing together individuals in ice hockey who have a variety of backgrounds such as sports societies, sports clubs and other organizations such as the *Komsomol*.[13] The power of the Soviet Ice Hockey Federation is apparently more nominal than real, in view of the top-down direction from the Central Sports Committee, the work of the Ice Hockey Department and the voluntary nature of the committee and council membership of the Federation.

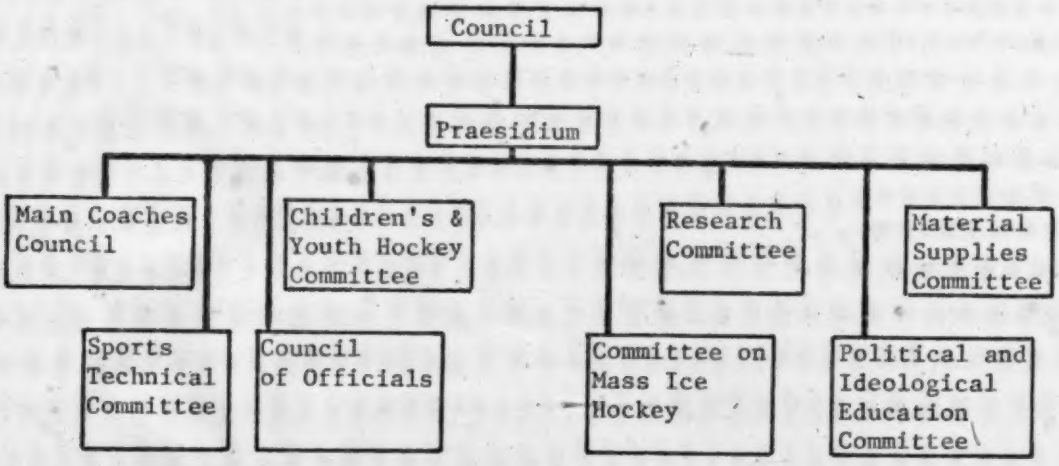

Council
Praesidium
Main Coaches Council
Children's & Youth Hockey Committee
Research Committee
Material Supplies Committee
Sports Technical Committee
Council of Officials
Committee on Mass Ice Hockey
Political and Ideological Education Committee

Illustration 4.1

Organization of Soviet Ice Hockey Federation[14]

GENERAL OUTLINE OF THE ICE HOCKEY SYSTEM IN THE SOVIET UNION

The Soviet ice hockey system has been described by Brusovansky as a pyramid, which may be graphically illustrated in the following manner:

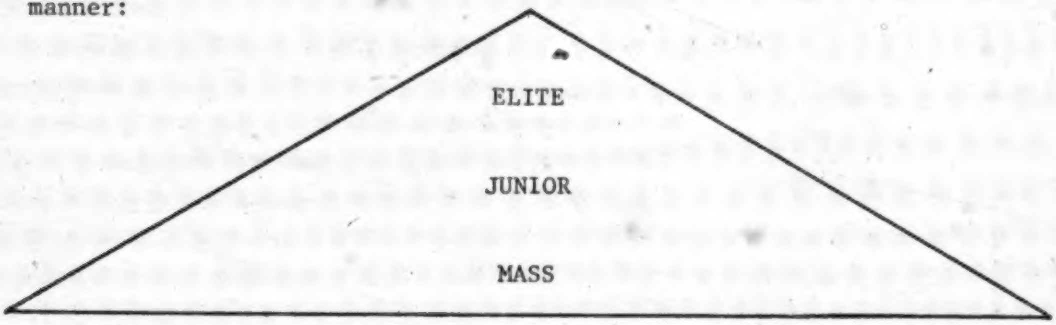


Illustration 4.2

Ice Hockey System of the USSR[15]

The implication of such a conceptualization is that there is a relatively broad base of mass participation in ice hockey which underpins the Soviet successes at the elite level of national and international play. The situation the Soviet authorities seem to communicate is supposed to be in line with Kalinin's statement that,

> In our country, millions participate in the Sports-movement. And it is obvious that talented athletes will sooner be found among those millions than among thousands, and that it is easier to find talented athletes among thousands than among hundreds.[16]

Two authoritative sources place the number of active participants in the ice hockey system at 600,000 (approximately)[17] and 604,000.[18] Even with this definitiveness and relative agreement between the two sources, it remains unclear as to how many children and youth participate in the mass hockey programs which are termed the "Courtyard Program" and the "Golden Puck Tournament."[19] Clear establishment of this number has importance for establishing the breadth of the base of the Soviet ice hockey pyramid. It is similarly unclear as to how many of these young players are included within the 600,000 members of the Ice Hockey Federation of the USSR. Estimates of the actual number of participants in the Golden Puck Tournament vary from approximately 325,000[20] to as high as 3,000,000[21] so it is difficult to establish the actual size of the base of the ice hockey pyramid, and to specifically determine the number which can be included within the 600,000 registered active members. It has been stated that seventy per cent of the 600,000 are youth under the age of eighteen years and if this percentage were accepted there would be approximately 420,000 youth in both the elite and mass ice hockey streams of development.[22]

Leaving the mass programs for ice hockey in abeyance for the moment, it seems possible to derive a clearer picture for the junior ice hockey and elite ice hockey segments of the pyramid. Local (town), district and regional competition for junior players aged ten to seventeen years appears to include 71,476 players[23] or approximately 75,000 young ice hockey players.[24] Apparently the players in the junior ice hockey designation are players within the physical culture voluntary organizations including sports societies, trade unions, farm collectives and other sports clubs. The situation for junior ice hockey seems to fall between the situations for the mass program and elite program of ice hockey, although in general it seems to be more closely related to the elite ice hockey situation.[25]

The next advanced stage in the pyramid, the elite program, includes 22,307 young players who are attached to sports schools, fifty-two of which are organized by sports societies and clubs that sponsor Superior, First and Second Division adult teams.[26] These players are the main resource for filling the adult teams and five national teams which represent the Soviet Union in international play. Prime importance must be given to understanding the development of boys who are enrolled in the one hundred and sixty-one "Children's and Youth's Sports Schools" (CYSS), ten of which specialize in ice hockey programs and fifty-two of which are attached to Superior, First and Second Division adult teams. They represent the stream of elite ice hockey development which commands the majority of Soviet attention in terms of organization of time and effort, facility utilization and time programming, use of trained leadership, and, presumably, financial expenditure.

Illustration 4.3 presents an estimated profile of participants in the Soviet ice hockey system. Although many qualifications must be made regarding the profile, it is useful to communicate the relatively small number of participants in the elite ice hockey stream in relation to those in the mass ice hockey stream. This relative difference would be greatly accentuated if the publicists' figures of 3,000,000 Golden Puck Tournament participants were accepted.

The boundaries between the mass ice hockey stream and the elite ice hockey stream seem to be relatively impermeable and exclusive, particularly as the age of the participant increases. The statements,

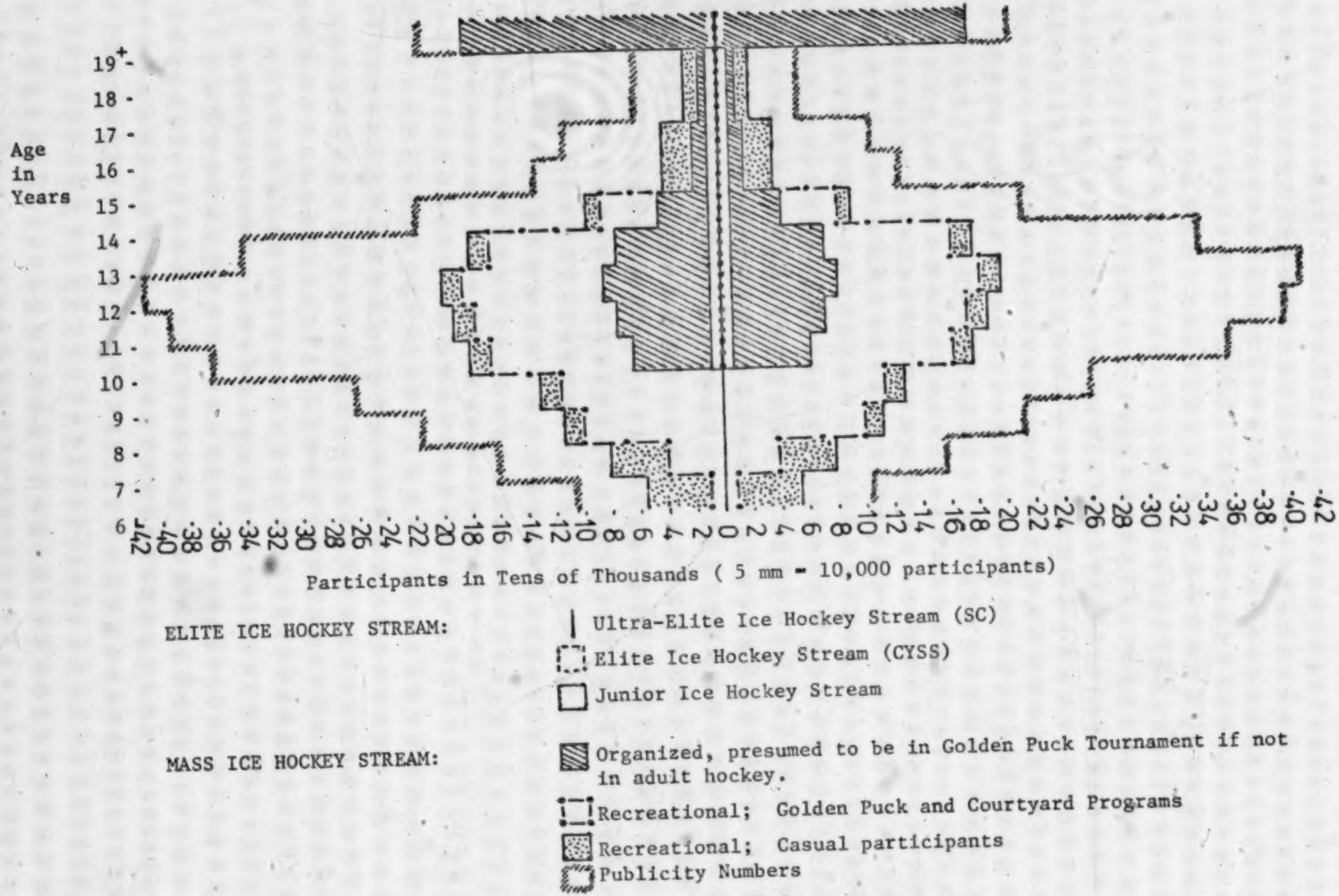


Illustration 4.3

Estimated Profile of USSR Ice Hockey System[28]

"Mass hockey is not the road to dexterity and skill in the game because there are other sports which command attention, and there are problems of limited ice time and equipment . . . ," and, "Elite programs are a small gate through which young people enter the game to progress towards the Superior teams and national teams,"[29] appear to support the notion of relatively exclusive streams of development. Additional support may be marshalled from the conclusions which Marshall and others[30] derived from their participation in the 1974 Concordia University course on Soviet hockey:

> The reader should remember that in the Soviet Union young players can be tagged for elite status about six years of age. Once selected for such (elite status) a role in their society, they receive the best coaching available and virtually unlimited ice time. In contrast, the opportunities for other athletes are not well defined or organized. This is perhaps best expressed by Bistrov, the coach of the Junior team of the Central CZKA [sic] . . . there are lots of natural ice rinks for these boys. They can play hockey in the winter and soccer in the summer.

The seemingly intense selection process present within the Soviet ice hockey system may be highlighted by other actualities within the system. While Moscow has not always been the center for ice hockey in the Soviet Union it currently seems to be, especially in the Junior and Superior categories of play. Leningrad, Riga, Novosibirsk, Ufa, Sverdlovsk and other centers have made great strides in recent years, but Moscow-based teams continue to monopolize the top standings in the Superior League, to contribute nearly all of the players for the national teams, and to be regarded as the place to move if one desires a good future. In total, this appears to contribute to an intensely selective process in which players are competing for a spot within one of the four Superior League club sports schools in Moscow (that is, *TsSKA, Kryl'ya Sovetov, Spartak, Dinamo*).[31] In effect these four schools are an ultra-elite stream within the elite ice hockey stream.

Movement between the elite stream and the mass stream, although very rare, seems to occur mainly for two reasons. In the first instance an elite stream player who does not maintain his position in an elite group may choose to enter the mass stream of ice hockey in order to remain in the sport and perhaps even get a "second chance" to return to the elite stream by displaying excellence in the Golden Puck Competitions. The second instance of mobility results when a gifted player from the Golden Puck Tournament is invited to move into a preparatory group or second team of an elite sports school. Much publicity is given to the possibility of working up through the courtyard program and Golden Puck Tournament to enter the elite stream, but in actuality the occurrence is very rare. Boys in the sports schools and club sports schools are prohibited from playing in the Golden Puck so that mobility of an opportunist nature is curtailed. At any rate, boys would seem to be very hesitant to move to this secondary, or "houseleague"[32] route because the advantages clearly accompany play in the elite stream. The observation of Tuzik, coach of the *Kryl'ya Sovetov* Midget team, that: "The Golden Puck Competition is for players who failed to make the elite hockey schools,"[33] further reinforces the duality of streaming.

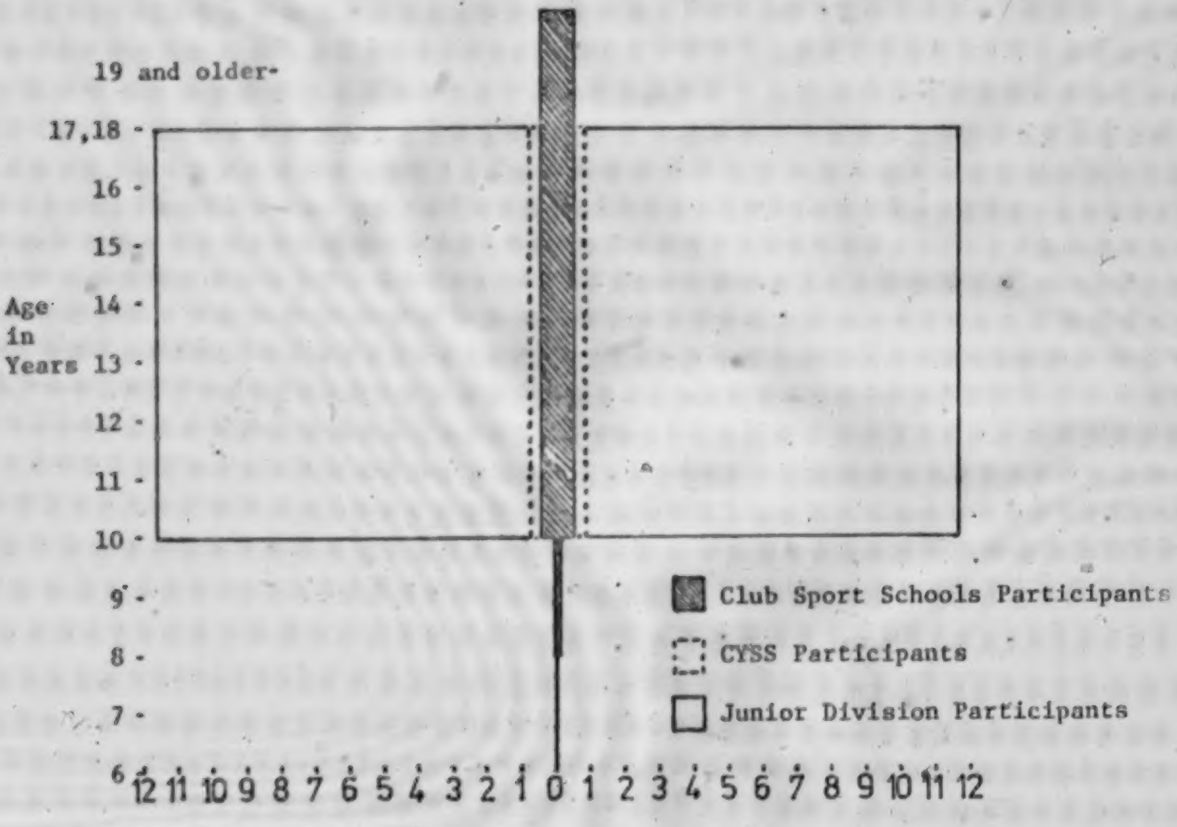
The bifurcate streaming, mass ice hockey and elite ice hockey, aligns with two of the major aims for Soviet sport: firstly, to try to involve as many participants as possible to achieve educational, physical and moral outcomes as well as creating a broad base for selection of elite players; and, secondly, to achieve the optimal development of the gifted athlete for the outcomes achieved through representative sport.

ELITE ICE HOCKEY STREAM

In practice the ranking of the first two aims seems to clearly favour emphasis upon development of the gifted athlete. A disproportionate amount of all the resources appears to be directed towards elite programming. Considerable effort from Soviet authorities seems to be directed towards creating what is ostensibly an illusion that the mass ice hockey stream is of equal or greater importance than the elite ice hockey stream. Scrutiny of resource allocation appears to clearly indicate a pre-occupation with the elite ice hockey stream.

The apparent reason for the stress on the elite stream may be found in the idea of representative sport which underpins all Soviet sporting endeavour. The ultimate aim is to produce Olympic, World and European champions who will testify to the measure of the Soviet Union's health and power: in short, sport is a political instrument of major import, within and without the Soviet Union.[34]

The age at which young boys enter the elite stream appears to vary according to the philosophy of the sports club and its trainers and leaders. It seems that there is a wide variation in practice, with progressively more boys entering at age eight and then at age ten, as shown in Illustration 4.4. Some experimentation appears to be occurring and it seems safe to say that the trend among club sports schools is to launch boys into ice hockey at progressively earlier ages. It seems important to note, in the ideal, that the boys enter a program which stresses all-round development for budding athletes and not simply a program with exclusive emphasis upon ice hockey.



Participants in Thousands
5mm = 1,000 Participants

Illustration 4.4

Estimated Profile of Elite Ice Hockey Stream and Junior Division in USSR[35]

In 1972 a rumor circulated in Canada that boys were being "psychologically and physically" screened as early as age four years for possible initiation into development programs for ice hockey. This practice seems fairly widespread for initiation into figure skating preparation, but seems to occur only in some experimental programs in ice hockey. The Central Army Sports Club (*Tchentraliniy Sportivniy Klub Armii - TsSKA*), an apparent leader in ice hockey trends, officially inducts boys into its program at age six. They appear to include the occasional very promising five year-olds who have impressed their trainers, and it is ostensibly these boys who could have been screened at age four.[36] It is more certain that screening occurs at age five and particularly by age six for induction into the *TsSKA* program.

The *TsSKA* screening process ideally places importance upon two indices: firstly, parental qualities, including physical stature, health, life style (that is, whether or not the parents were sportsmen, and their success achieved in athletic endeavour), connections--sporting, political and/or official, and interest in supporting the child in ice hockey; and secondly, the qualities present in the child, with stress upon physical attributes (including athletic ability, potential, stature, health and fitness), as well as somewhat lesser stress upon psychological attributes (including interest, desire, readiness and maturity). Athletic ability seems to be assessed through skating; dryland activities in the form of low level tests of coordination, speed, reaction, agility, control and strength during running-, jumping-, rolling-, throwing-, catching-, and kicking-type actions of singular or combined nature; and through assessment of the playing role and ability displayed in low level competitive games and contests.[37]

Each year reportedly as many as or more than an estimated 1,000 boys respond to the advertisement in the *Sovetsky Sport* newspaper, which invites tryouts for the six year-old preparatory group (and other age-level preparatory groups) in the *TsSKA* club sports school.[38] Other Superior team club sports schools, *Spartak* and *Dinamo*, each receive upwards of 600 aspirants and, for example, *Lokomotiv* First Division club sports school try-outs attract a lesser number of from two to four hundred prospects. In view of the very heavy turnout, it would presumably be a herculean task to test so many candidates in as many parameters as the ideal screening procedure attributed to the *TsSKA* club sports school.

An official from the *Kryl'ya Sovetov* sports society indicated that their club sports school also received up to 1,000 applications from interested six year-olds.[39] Their screening process apparently involves measurement of skating, body control and physical stature, and takes a minimum of one-to-two weeks to complete. In addition the school receives approximately 500 applications during the year which necessitates additional testing to select the eighty boys who will comprise the six year-old preparatory group.

The greater interest in joining the *TsSKA* club sports schools has contributed towards establishing the club as the leading producer of top national players and recognizing it as a top ice hockey school in the USSR. Other leading club sports schools are *Spartak*, *Dinamo*, *Dinamo Riga*, *Kryl'ya Sovetov*, *Salavat Dulaev (Ufa)*, and *Torpedo Gorky*; for purposes of this paper, however, the organization of *TsSKA* will be outlined as a framework for generating remarks on aspects of the elite ice hockey stream.

The following table, Table 4.1, outlines the structure of the ice hockey section of *TsSKA*, which includes the club sports school for ice hockey. Conceivably, if the figures are reliable, 375 to 460 ice hockey players could be included within the total program, which makes the *TsSKA* program the largest in the Soviet Union, and reflects the almost unlimited and unparalleled resources backing the sports club.

Table 4.1

Structure of the Ice Hockey Section of the Central Army Sports Club (*TsSKA*)[40]

Category	Age Classification; Number of Players
Masters' Team	Unlimited age; approximately 25 players on team
Junior Team	Ages 17 or 18 years; approximately 25 players on team
Youth Team	Age 16 years; approximately 25 players on team
Younger Youth Team	Age 15 years; approximately 30 players on team
First Boys' Team	Age 14 years; approximately 30-35 boys on team
Second Boys' Team	Age 13 years; approximately 30-40 boys on team
Third Boys' Team	Age 12 years; approximately 30-40 boys on team
Fourth Boys' Team	Age 11 years; approximately 30-40 boys on team
Preparatory Groups: Age 10 years Age 9 years Age 8 years Age 7 years Age 6 years	Two groups for each age level; ranked according to ability and previous experience in the sports school; up to 40 boys in each of the two groups at each age level. Usually the numbers are closer to 30 than 40.

Other sports societies and sports clubs sponsor club sports schools which are smaller and differently structured as a result of variations in facility availability, leadership availability and philosophy, location, size of the sports society or club, and financial support. Most commonly, the other club sports schools include fewer teams and groups. In Moscow, *Kryl'ya Sovetov*, for example, selects about eighty boys at age six, but they are "weeded out" progressively at subsequent age levels until at age eleven there are only about thirty to forty boys remaining in the preparatory group.[41] From age twelve onwards, at each of the next seven classifications, there is one team of approximately thirty players. In total, around 350 players are included in the ice hockey section of *Kryl'ya Sovetov*. It should be noted that the *Kryl'ya Sovetov* club sports school is one of the larger and more successful schools, even though they do not have a rink of their own--it is now being constructed. The *Dinamo* Sports Club has recently completed a large indoor facility which includes an ice rink, so club officials are currently expanding the size of their preparatory groups and the number of teams. Most teams, sports schools and club sports schools in Moscow, and in the Soviet Union as a whole, are currently using outdoor ice so their programs are subject to the vagaries of climate. It is projected in state planning that within five years every ice hockey school (that is, all fifty-two within the club sports school and sports school classifications) will have its own artificial ice which will allow quantitative and qualitative increases in the programming within the elite stream.[42] Based upon the current building schedule it appears that club sports schools will have their facilities before the other sports schools.

In Leningrad there are 5,000 players who are playing organized ice hockey within the framework of eighteen sports societies and clubs which sponsor club sports schools and sports schools.[43] Each sports group may sponsor teams in seven age classifications as outlined in Table 4.2. In addition, there are the preparatory groups which program nine year-old boys into what has been termed an "organization year."[44] Here, as in the Moscow club sports schools, there are trainers who are including boys who are younger than the group norm. There does not, however, appear to be any club sport school in Leningrad which accepts boys as early as six years of age.

Table 4.2

Structure of Competition Organized by the Leningrad Sports Committee (1974-75 Season)[45]

Masters' Team	-Born 1955 and earlier
Junior Team	-Born 1956, 1957
Youth Team	-Born 1958, 1959
First Boys' Team	-Born 1960, 1961
Second Boys' Team	-Born 1962, 1963
Third Boys' Team	-Born 1964, (1965)

The question of starting age and the related question of initial age for entering organized competition are moot points within the Soviet ice hockey system. Overall, the trend appears to be one of initiating ice hockey training at an earlier age, so presumably those trainers and officials favoring this position are currently holding sway. The design of the programs attempts to allay the concerns of Soviet physiologists and psychologists who hold,

> that early specialization leads to one-sided development in the long run, a lackadaisical attitude toward actual game performance, and to a superficial feeling that one has mastered the skills re-required of a particular sport.[46]

Ostensibly, there is not an official stand taken by the Central Sports Committee, nor is much stock placed in research activity which discourages the trainers and club sports schools from recruiting ever-younger players.[47]

The "official" position of the Ice Hockey Department of the Central Institute of Physical Culture of the Order of Lenin, Moscow, on this question may have changed during the last two years. In 1973 McDonald[48] reported that it was felt that eight years of age was the best time to begin to learn how to play hockey. In 1975, however, Stalyarov indicated a start in ice hockey at age seven years.[49]

The long-term success of *TsSKA*; the recent successes of *Kryl'ya Sovetov* (whose officials point to the 1974-75 Moscow Championship won by their twelve year-old team who started together as six year-olds); the practice of early identification and selection of athletic ability and intensive training of young children in the majority of other sports; the reward structure for sporting success present in the larger society; and the resultant interest and pressure from vested-interest segments in the society (sporting officials, trainers, parents, boys) appear to generate a powerful force for early specialization in ice hockey training.

Canadian ice hockey officials, who have been attempting to limit organized competition at an early age prior to the establishment of a sound base in fundamental skills, have used the Soviet ice hockey system as a model whose success lends support to their stand.[50] These officials point to apparent Soviet practices wherein boys do not engage in an organized competitive program until age twelve or later and to the skill displayed by Soviet ice hockey players, as support for their desire to change the Canadian situation which is based upon early emphasis upon games competition.

In reality the ostensibly once-firm Soviet practice of limiting organized competition until at least age twelve appears to have eroded in light of developments within Soviet ice hockey programming. Soviet ice hockey officials freely recognize the borrowing which they have done from Canadian ice hockey and it is interesting to note that at a time when Canadians seem to be involved in much introspection about their own hockey, the Soviets appear very interested in the Canadian model for possible assistance in drafting a revised stand on programming for children under twelve years, and in reassessing the question of an earlier starting age for competition.[51]

Competition during the 1974-75 season was organized for all boys who were born prior to December 31, 1964.[52] Four of seven officials questioned by the author said that organized competition extends downwards only as far as the twelve year-olds.[53] A close examination of the relationship between the December 31, 1964 date and the age the boys could be in 1974 at the start of holidays on "July 1," would clearly indicate that the boys could be either eleven years of age (for those born from January 1 to July 1, 1964), or ten years of age (for those born after July 1 in 1964).[54] Following this line of reasoning, which is assumed to be correctly based, seems to indicate that organized competition commences for boys in the elite stream as early as ten years of age, and certainly for eleven year-olds.

One explanation of this situation may lie in the interpretation of the term, organized competition. Organized competition, as one official seemed to explain, could be seen as synonymous with the official starting age for ice hockey in the sports schools.[55] The official position of the Central Sports Committee appears to be based upon induction into Children's and Youth's Sports Schools at age ten, even though boys are actively recruited into club sports schools for ice hockey as early as six years and in some instances, earlier.

In addition, the age of ten years may be the cut-off point because reference, although never directly cited, has been made to research which has established that competition, with its emphasis upon team play, requires more skills than can be programmed into a boy by age eight, or younger; and that competition around age nine and ten should be limited.[56] Another study, again not cited, apparently concluded that the demands of a game situation upon a boy could not be controlled by the boy himself, or by his trainer, so it is important not to place the young boy in such a situation too early.[57] In response to a direct question on the specific age, Stalyarov[58] outlined the practices in many other sports but did not give a specific age for ice hockey.

The program of the *TsSKA* hockey school now includes "modified" or "special" competition for the preparatory groups aged seven through eleven years. The boys officially engage in eight games a year wherein a handicap system, which gives goals to the younger groups in games against an older group, and a rule prohibiting body checking prevail. The reasons outlined for the introduction of competition in the *TsSKA* club sports school program were: to gradually prepare the boys for organized, external competition; to introduce variety, challenge and motivation into an "ever-longer" training process; and to recognize the work of Anatoli Tarasov, the revered trainer of *TsSKA*.[59]

The leadership role taken by *TsSKA* encourages the notion that other hockey schools will follow their lead towards more modified and informal competition. Intramural games (in the form of games between preparatory groups of the same age, and also between adjacent age classifications) and extramural or "friendly" games with other teams from rival sports schools are apparently occurring among the club sports schools in Moscow and Leningrad. It has been estimated that five or six games occur annually for the preparatory groups.[60] Ostensibly, most of the games are "friendly" matches for which statistics are not "officially" noted nor are game officials employed. One trainer of a First Division team indicated that invitational friendship games at the end of the year were occurring for the preparatory groups, but unfortunately the trainer did not specify the extent nor name the sports schools involved.[61] Tuzik[62] indicated that trainers working with youth favored the inclusion of more games in the training of all young players.

Although the Courtyard Program and the Golden Puck Tournament will be discussed in the section on the mass ice hockey stream, it is relevant to note that organized competition for ten and eleven year-old boys occurred, until 1974, within the auspices of the Golden Puck Tournament. Under the revised program initiated in the 1974-75 season, three age classifications have been created (ages 10-12; 13 & 14; 15 & 16 years). It may be noted that ten year-old boys and older will continue within the framework leading towards an "All-Union Tournament" (that is, USSR Championship). The new recommendations of the Directors of the Golden Puck Committee hold that competitions for boys eight and nine years of age may be organized to compete only for local, city and regional masterships.[63]

The eleven and twelve year-old boys' teams in the club sports schools play between twenty and twenty-five games per year. In Moscow, fifteen of these games are league games played with teams from the other leading club sports schools in the city. The remainder are mainly comprised of exhibition matches and the few which are games leading towards the city championship. To illustrate, in Moscow the club sports schools play off for the Moscow Championship.[64] In other areas of the Soviet Union approximately the same game schedule is pursued towards an area championship which may be local, regional or republic in nature. There are no national championships for youth below the age of sixteen years.[65]

The overall number of games is not large; the basic reasons for this seem to be the dearth of facilities and the prevailing view that training sessions accomplish more towards the development of top ice hockey players. The rational use of ice, equipment and leadership resources seems to reinforce the goal of the elite ice hockey stream--player development. The format for games generally is a round robin arrangement with single elimination in championship play.

When the issue of age to commence organized competition is treated as a whole, it seems reasonable to state that there is a trend towards introducing organized competition for ice hockey players at a progressively younger age. It is interesting to note that there appears to be a move towards an alignment of philosophy and practice between the elite ice hockey stream and mass ice hockey stream in regard to the question of starting age for competition and extent and type of competition.

The extension of systematic, intensive year-round training to age groups as low as six years appears to be related to, and in fact may encourage, the introduction of organized competition at an earlier age than was previously the case. In all instances, however, the introduction of competition is designed as an adjunct or complement to a program which continues to stress the all-round development of a fundamentally-skilled performer.

> This system of creating hockey players of high calibre is made up in such a way, that the coaching is done during a "long stretch" of time, in other words during some 10-12 years. The thus accomplished good hockey players come out then upon the top USSR arena, as a general rule, when they are in their 18-19 years of age.[66]

Before examining the details of the development program a brief consideration will be given to the Children's and Youth's Sports Schools (CYSS) and their role in the elite ice hockey stream. The aim of the CYSS,

> . . . is to use the best of the limited facilities available in the USSR to give special coaching to young people in a particular sport so that they may become proficient, gain a ranking and graduate to a national or a Republican team. They are one of the vital keys to the secret of Soviet sporting success; they are, in the opinion of some, "forges of Olympic reserves."[67]

These schools are financed and run mainly by the education ministries of the fifteen Republics, the trade-union sports societies (for example: *Spartak*, *Zenit* and thirty-four others), and two large sports clubs run by *Dinamo* and the armed forces.[68] The club sports schools which specialize in ice hockey exclusively, and the sport schools which include ice hockey as one of their specialties, are part of a system of approximately 3,000 CYSS which operate in all sports to develop athletic ability.[69]

The overall picture is apparently not as straightforward as it may seem, as there are distinctions among the sports schools. The CYSS financed by the education ministries are the ones which are administered and programmed by the *Komsomol* youth movement. Lebedev,[70] Administrator for the Leningrad Sports Committee, ranks these schools in a second tier in terms of developing ice hockey players. He indicated that the better prospects are selected from the *Komsomol* sports schools for more intensive training (five times per week as opposed to three times per week) with the club sports schools attached to the Superior, First and Second Division League teams. Of most interest in this paper are the club sport schools organized and run by the sports societies and sports clubs, as these schools appear to be an ultra-elite stream of ice hockey development.[71]

Boys attend the sports schools in the early morning or in the afternoon depending upon their time schedule at their regular school. Boys who attend school in the morning train in the afternoon, and those who attend classes in the afternoon train in the morning. The training sessions are programmed and led by qualified trainers who have, in many cases, taken their training at one of the Institutes of Physical Culture and Sport. Some of the trainers are former Superior League or First or Second Division League players who accumulated their training at the Institutes while they were playing, or who gained their position without benefit of specialized training.[72]

Each trainer, on the average, may be responsible for three groups within the ice hockey school.[73] In both Moscow and Leningrad, however, a limited number of club sports schools indicated that they had one leader per age group. There are differences among the club sports schools, as each is attempting to evolve a development program which will lead to more championships and more players advancing to the national teams. The patterns for working with the age groups may be cited as one difference. That is; in *Spartak*, trainers choose to specialize at a particular age classification (for example, ten year-olds) so the trainers do not change groups; in *TsSKA* the trainers move to a new and different age group each year; whereas in *Kryl'ya Sovetov* the trainers move upwards to the next level with their groups to lend continuity to the programming.[74]

The amount of time each trainer spends with his group seems to vary according to age level of the boys, keenness of the trainer, method of paying trainer, philosophy of the sports society or sports club, and opportunities for using training facilities. As a general rule boys in the preparatory groups at the club sports schools train three times per week. The time duration for these sessions varies from 45 to 75 minutes for boys aged six, up to a general norm of 90 minutes for boys aged eleven and older. The number of training sessions on ice per week depends directly upon the availability of ice. Schools such as *TsSKA*, which have their own ice rink, have a tremendous advantage over schools that rely on natural, outdoor ice or rented indoor ice (which is rare among schools). In some instances, the two teams or preparatory groups at a particular age classification work out a schedule to equitably share the ice time.

Some trainers work with their groups or teams more frequently than three times per week. In *Kryl'ya Sovetov*, for example, the majority of trainers reportedly worked with their teams an average of five times per week during the 1974-75 season.[75] The more successful *Kryl'ya Sovetov* teams followed this pattern so it seems reasonable to expect that their success will provide a model for others.

Most boys train for ice hockey during eleven months of the year. There are some schools which train more (*Kryl'ya Sovetov* are supposedly now training year-round) and some schools which program less of their boys' time--perhaps only nine or ten months, or less.

Some of the sports societies and sports clubs have sites where summer sports camps are held. Usually one month (or two months in the case of the *Kryl'ya Sovetov* school) of training is scheduled at these outdoor sites in the post-season or early pre-season period of the year-round training plan. In most instances this training time is the period when boys are attending the Pioneer summer holiday camps.

The year is divided into four basic segments for purposes of ice hockey training; namely, the pre-season period, the active season period, the post-season period and the holiday period. Each period is programmed with different emphases which fit into the larger whole of a systematic, long-range training program for development of ice hockey players, which has been outlined by the Ice Hockey Department of the Central Sports Committee. Table 4.3 summarizes the yearly or master schedule of training in the Soviet ice hockey system, which reportedly was first articulated by Tarasov.

A curriculum guide, *Hockey Programs for Children's-Youth's Sports Schools,*[77] has been published by the Ice Hockey Department of the Central Sports Committee. The guide is targetted for use in the CYSS for children and youth aged ten through seventeen. Whether trainers actually use the guide seems to be a moot point. At least three trainers have eschewed its use, partially because it is apparently not widely available, and mainly because they do not consider the guide useful in their situations. A youth trainer with *TsSKA* indicated that the guide is out-of-date and not widely used even where it is available to trainers; and that *TsSKA* does not use the curriculum guide in its ice hockey programming.[78]

Table 4.3

Schedule of Training in the Soviet Ice Hockey System[76]

Time Period	Type of Training
June 1 to June 30	Holiday--No team training, voluntary individual training and remedial training. Some team holidays, which facilitate year-round training.
July 1 to September 30	Pre-Season--(Preparatory Period)--Main task is development of form: Dryland training initially in 4-week "General Preparation Period," Hockey specific training; 4-week "Meso Cycle" of dryland and ice training; 4-week "Special Preparation Period," mainly concerned with ice training and readiness for game play.
October 1 to May 1 (8)	In-Season--(Competitive Period)--Realization of task of attaining best performance: ice training and complementary dryland training; insertion of micro-cycle dryland training periods during time period when leagues adjourn for international competition.
May 1 to May 31	Post-Season--(Transfer Period)--Transition from peak performance to period with less training stress: two cycles; maintenance of form in first cycle and individual and remedial stress in second cycle.

Table 4.4 provides a very general outline of the systematic development program for ice hockey players in the Soviet Union.

A "typical" (and ideal) training session for a preparatory group, aged six years, during the active season period at the *TsSKA* club hockey sports school, included the following elements: random skating, stick handling and shooting at start of practice session, skating in circuit pattern with varying tempo (full speed, moderate speed), varying tasks (for example, dropping to single knee, both

Table 4.4.1

A General Outline of the Qualitative Content and Methodology for the Systematic Long-Range Development of Ice Hockey Players in the Soviet Union[79]

Age	Physical Preparation
6-8 years: Special Preliminary Preparation	-Stress upon general, all-round physical activity. -Concentration upon basic movement patterns and fundamental skill-techniques involved in low-organization games and activities. -Use of wide variety of means; acrobatics, movement games, relays, stunts, contests, challenges.
9-12 years: Preliminary Preparation	-All-round, general preparation. -Activity geared towards development of agility, flexibility, versatility. -Use of wide variety of equipment and means; movement games relays. -Use of basics of acrobatics (gymnastics, movement activities), wrestling and stunts and contests.
13-14 years: Elementary Sporting Preparation	-General, many-sided, all-round preparation. -Activity geared towards development of speed and initiation of strength work. -Use of weights (small load stress) and weighted apparatus, supportive activities versus gravity (e.g. hopping, leaping, jumping, sit-ups on inclined board, pull-ups) and speedwork with variety of means and apparatus within framework of means and apparatus within framework of circuit training and interval training. -Use of acrobatics, games, relays, wrestling.
15 years & older: Perfection Training Towards Masters' Level	-General, many-sided, all-round preparation. -Activity geared towards development of strength and endurance. -Continuation of speed work; Use of weights (with heavier load stress for strength work, and small load stress for endurance work), and continuation of previous activities, but with greater stressing within the framework of circuit training and interval training.

Table 4.4.2

Age	Technical Preparation
6-8 years: Special Preliminary Preparation	-Concentration upon basic skill-techniques and movement patterns: skating and puck control (stickhandling, passing, pass receiving and shooting). -Practice of skating and puck control in keepaway and shinny-type low-organization games.
9-12 years: Preliminary Preparation	-Mastery of basic skill-techniques, and of basic drills to practise skill-techniques. -Mastery of combinations of basic skill-techniques and of basic drills to practise these combinations.
13-14 years: Elementary Sporting Preparation	-Mastery of all individual skill-techniques and combinations of skill-techniques. -Individualization of techniques and practise of them in game situations and conditions. -Continued work on precision ability.
15 years & older: Perfection Training Towards Masters' Level	-Continued work on individual techniques and combinations of techniques. Emphasis upon increasing the effectiveness and accuracy while working at high speeds, under conditions forcing quick adjustments, and under duress from other players and time demands. -Execution of complex individual skills under the above circumstances.

Table 4.4.43

Age	Tactical Preparation
6-8 years: Special Preliminary Preparation	-Individual tactics in individual play in 1-on-1 keep-away situations. -Individual tactics in shinny-type game situations. -Older boys introduced to spatial and situational orientation and some basic team tactics.

9-12 years: Preliminary Preparation	-Orientation to, and work upon mastering individual tactics and basic team tactics. -Spatial and situational orientation. -Development of selective perception and visual memory. -Practice of drills to develop these attributes.
13-14 years: Elementary Sporting Preparation	-Study of all individual actions and interactions between two and three players. -Study and understanding of tactical systems of play. -Use of simple and complex drills to practise these knowledges.
15 years & older: Perfection Training Towards Masters' Level.	-Work on mastery of complex individual actions, interactions, and tactical systems under circumstances where a certain function is to be accomplished. -Work on a variety of functions; that is, options in tactical systems and the requirements of components within each system.

knees, shoulder rolls, continuous turning while skating, different body positions, weave through obstacles, backward skating), stick-handling (individual, keepaway), passing while moving, zone scrimmaging (three or sometimes two cross-ice scrimmage zones).[80] The boys moved almost continuously during the best organized training sessions. They spent about one-half of each seventy-five minute session in the zone scrimmage drill. In general, the emphasis of the on-ice training sessions seemed geared towards a thorough coverage of the fundamental skill-techniques of ice hockey.

The dryland training sessions for the same group during the active season included activities which emphasize basic movement patterns (running, hopping, leaping, jumping, throwing, rolling, turning, supporting), and games, relays and competitions based upon these movement patterns. Other important elements in the sessions were modelling or simulating types of activities (that is, simulated stickhandling, shooting, skating), other games (soccer, basketball, volleyball, handball), and gymnastics.

The training regimen for boys in the older preparatory age groups involves an elaboration of the on-ice and dryland activities completed by the younger preparatory age groups.[81] More intensity, more difficulty and more complexity are attached to many of the same movement patterns, drills, exercises and skill-techniques which were given to the six to eight year-old boys. Basic team-play tactics and situation-play tactics are introduced to complement an emphasis upon combinations in skill-techniques and cooperative play. Dryland training activities employing more strength challenges are added for the older preparatory age groups and for the boys' teams.

A "typical" (and ideal) training session for children aged nine to twelve involved the following components: warm-up for five minutes, which included stretching exercises and skating drills; fundamental skill-techniques session for ten to thirty minutes, which emphasized skating and puck control skill-techniques either individually or more usually in combinations which led into situation play and team play; situation play for ten to twenty minutes, which included situations involving one to three teammates and a range of up to three opponents; team play for ten to forty-five minutes, which included cooperative drills, situations involving up to five mobile teammates and a like number of opponents in a scrimmage setting either crossways, lengthways or most often in half-ice arrangements; and a warmdown for two to five minutes which emphasized a variety of activities of a physically-taxing, competitive challenge or novelty nature. The dryland training programs for this age group included some work with weights or weighted implements up to approximately one-third of the boy's body weight. A wide variety of activities and means were employed in the off-ice setting to develop all-round athletic ability.

Table 4.5 outlines the frequency of training sessions and games and type of competition.

Throughout the whole year four-fifths of the content in the dryland training sessions applies to all sports whereas only one-fifth is geared specifically towards ice hockey preparation. It is obviously axiomatic that the ice-training sessions should be geared towards the requirements present in the game. All youth teams and groups, regardless of their age classification, maintain a program of dryland conditioning which is designed to complement the on-ice training sessions and games. Observation of the preparatory groups and age class teams in action during training sessions and games points out the use of freely-flowing movement which is the hallmark of top calibre Soviet ice hockey. The training sessions are geared towards establishing physical fitness as the pre-condition for sustaining maximum movement activity during the game.

In the post-season period a gradual tapering of the training load occurs. Those hockey schools which have their own ice rinks continue to engage in on-ice training sessions, whereas the less-fortunate schools employ other games and dryland training activities to gradually lighten the training stress.

Most club sports schools apparently spend one month in an outdoor or nature-based sports camp setting which is presumably the

Table 4.5

Frequency and Duration of Training Sessions; Number of Games; and Type and Extent of Competition in Children's Ice Hockey in the USSR[82]

Age Classification	Frequency and Duration of Training Sessions/Week	Number of Formal Games in Season	Type and Extent of Competition
Elite Ice Hockey Stream:			
Preparatory Groups: 6-10 years	3 x 45-75 minutes	5 or 6 adjacent group intramural games 8 intramural games in Tarasov Cup	Zone scrimmage for boys aged 6 & 7 years. Intramural games with adjacent age groupings. Participation in intramural competition, e.g.: *TsSKA* Tarasov Cup
Boys' Teams 11,12 years	3 x 90 min. (5) x 90 min.	15 league and 10 exhibition games	City League and Championship among club sport schools. Local, regional competition among CYSS and Junior Division teams. Local competitions, e.g., Moscow Cup.
Mass Ice Hockey Stream:			
Boys 7-9 years	Depending upon local conditions	5-10 games	"Friendly" local matches among courtyard teams.
Boys 10-12 years	Depending upon local conditions	5-25 games, depending upon success	Local, regional, all-Union championships in Golden Puck Tournament.

Pioneer summer holiday camp for all children. During this time exercises, games and activities such as track and field, gymnastics, orienteering and cross-country running are employed. The *Kryl'ya Sovetov* club sports school supposedly includes a two-month sports camp program in the yearly training schedule. During the sports camp in 1974 the boys aged seven through eighteen were programmed into appropriate activities which used the outdoors whenever possible. Their program included a daily organized training load of from 135 to 270 minutes of physical activity, including morning exercises, physical and sports activity and other games and activity.

During the summer holiday period in June most boys have a program of physical activity which has been set up for them by their trainer. The boys are urged to undertake the program so that they may enter the pre-season training period with a "head-start." The voluntary program is apparently based upon running, swimming, games and exercises.

High-intensity training is often organized in the ten-day winter vacation (January 1-10). Many trainers work their teams twice per day in a modified form of micro-cycle training. High-intensity training is also used during special two-to-three-day camps which are programmed into the active season whenever a team may have a lull in the schedule and wishes to raise the level of conditioning.

In order to safeguard the boys against the rigors of the stressing in on-ice and dryland training sessions, medical check-ups are reportedly given twice per year--in September and in March. The results of the medical examination apparently are recorded on what is called an "athlete's card." The athlete's card is mainly used to record sports ranking, so all game participation is recorded as an adjunct to the medical data.[84]

The extent of research interest directed towards the earlier age classifications, six to twelve years, of the development process of ice hockey players is an unknown. Information supplied indicates that some physiological measurement (such as: oxygen consumption, heart rate, effects of training regimens), psychomotor measurement (such as: reaction time, movement time), skill analysis (biomechanical, qualitative and quantitative indices), and methodological study (such as: critical periods, teaching effectiveness) has been completed on boys as part of a more extensive research activity directed towards top sportsmen. It seems reasonable to assume that the research results (gleaned from extensive investigation of top calibre athletes) which have been employed to rationalize the training process and development programs and to influence methodological concerns at the upper levels of Soviet hockey would also filter down to rationalize the early phases of the development continuum.[85]

In sum, considerable effort and resource is lavished upon the chosen few in the club sports schools of the elite hockey stream. The expectation is that thoroughly-planned, systematic, scientifically-based training will continue to produce ice hockey players who will maintain Soviet dominance in Olympic, European and World Championship contests.

The Children's and Youth's Sports Schools which offer a specialty in ice hockey do not appear to hold such a favored status for the development of ice hockey players for the national cause. They seem to offer a second front of opportunity for developing the requisite skills and knowledges for play in the better leagues. According to Lebedev[86] and Tuzik[87] they occupy a position akin to a farm system or reserve bank of the club sports schools. The CYSS do not seem to have the resources of leadership, facilities, or prerogative to function as the primary development route in the Soviet ice hockey system.

The CYSS programs generally must rely upon natural ice for their programming. A second difficulty facing the majority of CYSS programs is their specialization in a number of sports in addition to ice hockey. The club sports schools, on the other hand, can generally concentrate much more emphasis upon ice hockey. The frequency, extent and nature of the training process in the CYSS appears to be not as strong as that of the club sports schools. Soviet ice hockey officials have cited a number of instances in which top ice hockey players from the CYSS and the Junior Division migrated to take up training in a club sports school. The implication of all of the foregoing is that the CYSS are a secondary route of development towards top level play and that their programming is not as well endowed for the purposes of optimal development of ice hockey players.

The Junior Division, although apparently straddling the elite and mass ice hockey streams, is presumed to be more akin, though distantly, to the elite ice hockey stream. In all respects the Junior Division is handicapped more than the CYSS in the development of top level ice hockey players. The CYSS seem to have access to more trained leaders and other resources. Players who wish to reach the top of the Soviet ice hockey pyramid must move to the more central development routes. From the limited information the writer has been able to generate on the Junior Division it would seem that it is a peripheral route at best and that its main bases of operation are in smaller centers of population which are not endowed with club sports schools or CYSS.[88] The nature and extent of programming seems to be directly linked with the commitment of resources and interest which the various physical culture organizations make towards their ice hockey endeavour. The Junior Division appears to be the mainstay of the elite ice hockey stream in the rural and smaller centers of population as well as in other locales not serviced by club sports schools or CYSS.

MASS ICE HOCKEY STREAM

Since the Soviet Union first entered international competition in 1954 there has been significant qualitative and quantitative progress in their ice hockey system. Their success in ice hockey has generated a fairly wide public following, and has created an interest among the young which cannot be met within the limited opportunities afforded by the highly-selective elite stream of development.

In the 1964-65 season the Central Committee of the Young Communist League (*Komsomol*) with the assistance of the Ice Hockey Department of the Sports Committee and some prominent ice hockey personages, Anatoli Tarasov and Veniamin Alexandrov, launched the Golden Puck Tournament for children and youth interested in playing ice hockey.[89] This tournament was paralleled by the introduction of similar competitions in football, gymnastics, rugby, weight lifting, and swimming; all of which were part of a large program for involving youth in organized sporting competition. Many of the youth were apparently being "abandoned" and left behind, or in fact never being given a chance because they could not survive the intense selection which progressively restricts the number of successful athletes who can remain in the elite stream. The Golden Puck Tournament was initiated to fill four aims:

a. inducing youngsters to start playing ice hockey,
b. pressing youngsters who do not play ice hockey regularly to do it systematically by organizing them,
c. selecting from among them the best ones and the more talented,
d. by so doing improving their health, strengthening their courage, and fostering a spirit of true friendship.[90]

To meet these aims the competition was arranged and has continued in a format which reaches outward to encourage the creation of teams from; boys living in a common apartment building, shared residence on a street, or in a living complex (courtyard), common attendance at a school (or within a class level), common bonds through parents working at the same factory or plant, or any other reason sufficient to form a team. *Komsomol* officials worked through the "Young Pioneers" (children and youth aged ten to fourteen yeras) organization to generate local organization, and in many instances to evolve what has been termed the "Courtyard Program." This is a program of instruction and training for children, aged eight, nine and ten, who are interested in learning the rudiments of skating and the game of ice hockey so that they may enter the Golden Puck Tournament.

Prior to entering games which lead towards the Golden Puck Tournament championship the teams usually play challenge games and hold training sessions. Estimates of the minimum number of games played by a less successful team have been set at five games. On the other hand, a successful team will play an estimated twenty-five to thirty games. All of these games and training sessions are contingent upon natural ice being available for play.[91]

There are three stages in the competition. At the first level, teams play within village, town and regional areas (or in cities--street, district and city area) to impress selection committee members with their suitability to be selected for the second stage; the regional and Republican competitions. Those teams who are successful at the Republican level and are selected to advance to the All-Union Final Tournament meet in the third stage of competition between March 20 and 30.[92] An incentive built into the selection process is the procedure whereby different teams are reportedly selected each year for advancement to the All-Union Final Tournament. The rationale is one of attempting to keep all ability-levels motivated, regardless of ability.[93]

Prior to the 1974-75 ice hockey season there were two age classifications for play: ages ten to thirteen, inclusive; and ages fourteen and fifteen. In the 1974-75 season the age classification scheme was changed to three categories: ages ten to twelve; ages thirteen and fourteen; and ages fifteen and sixteen. Sixteen teams are selected within each age classification for the All-Union Final Tournament.

The Golden Puck Committee, an on-going body responsible for the tournament, has recommended that local organizers establish competitions for boys ages eight, nine and ten, to allow them to play up to the first two stages of the competition.[94] The rules for play and equipment requirements are simplified for the first stage of competition to encourage more participation. In all stages the contests are supposed to consist of forty-five minutes, stop-time.

The coaches of the teams are all volunteers, and it appears that many of the estimated 25,000 volunteer coaches are parents who respond to their children's pleas for help.[95] The volunteer coaches are supposed to be assisted by permanent district organizers and resource people from the *Komsomol* youth movement, although concern has been expressed that this arrangement has not been realized to a great enough extent. The *Komsomol* organizers and ice hockey trainers are generally technically trained people who are charged with a responsibility for improving all phases of the program including training, or at least the assistance of the volunteer coaches.

The *Komsomol*-sponsored Children's and Youth's Sports Clubs (CYSC), which are designed to provide recreational opportunities for youth, play a leading role in the Courtyard Program, which is the foundation for the more-publicized Golden Puck Tournament. The actual extent of the Courtyard Program and the functioning of the CYSC in the instructing of skating and ice hockey seems impossible to determine. Earlier in the chapter it was pointed out that there is a wide discrepancy in the estimates of the numbers actually involved in the Golden Puck Tournament; estimates ranging from 325,000 to 3,000,000 participants. It seems that climatic conditions in large measure dictate the extent of programming. In a mild winter, such as the one experienced in 1974-75 while the writer attempted to document the functioning of the Golden Puck Tournament and Courtyard Program, very little skating and ice hockey play materialized.[96]

It is understood that in a cold winter, but not too cold to discourage physical activity, all forms of programming, whether episodic, casual recreational play, courtyard programming, or outdoor training by sports clubs teams do flourish to an extent greater than that observed by the writer. In summary, very little seems to be known about the nature and extent of Courtyard Programs. Regardless of the actual number of participants there are apparently many more boys who wish to skate and play ice hockey, but they appear to be restricted because of the problems currently facing the mass ice hockey programs.[97]

Soviet sports officials are hopeful that they may overcome the persistent problem areas of an insufficient amount of ice time and ice facilities; an inadequate supply of skates, ice hockey equipment and hockey sticks; and an insufficient number and quality of volunteer trainers and organization officials. Officials look forward to the next stage in the historical development of ice hockey in the Soviet Union wherein the mass ice hockey stream will be afforded the resources to overcome these persistent problems. Officials working with ice hockey look forward to a much broader mass ice hockey base to the pyramid and would presumably subscribe to former Soviet President Kalinin's observation, previously cited, that "it is obvious that talented athletes will sooner be found among those millions than among thousands . . . "[98]

The writer, while travelling through the Soviet Union in the middle of winter, was impressed by the amount of shinny, road hockey, stick play and skating engaged in by young boys. Ice hockey, though a relatively recent addition to the Soviet sports scene, has apparently generated much interest among the young and seems a natural extension of the skating and bandy played since Tsarist times. Skating and shinny playing appear to be popular recreational pastimes. Suitable weather brings out many players on all outdoor ice surfaces--natural, homemade or those maintained by municipal authorities.

Many of these youngsters may be participants who, if not already in the mass or elite ice hockey streams, aspire towards such opportunities for play. The number of youngsters who skate and play shinny is impossible to estimate, but appears to represent a potentiality of great magnitude and may in fact reach the estimated 3,000,000 mass program participants. Within the present context of ice hockey development, the opportunities for those boys who may desire to join the more central streams of ice hockey development appear to be extremely remote.

SOME NOTEWORTHY FEATURES IN THE ORGANIZATION AND DEVELOPMENT OF ICE HOCKEY IN THE USSR

The introduction of ice hockey into the Soviet sporting culture resulted in the evolution of a conceptualization of ice hockey which has been at variance with the established evolutionary line of ice hockey development in North America. Concomitant with the rise of Soviet ice hockey to domination in international play has been the dissemination of the Soviet conceptualization of the game. This approach has been mainly framed by Anatoli Tarasov who may be viewed not only as a major architect of the Soviet style and approach to play but also of the European style and approach to ice hockey play.

Whereas the Canadian approach to the game was tacitly assimilated into early Swedish and Czechoslovakian ice hockey play over a long period of time, the circumstances accompanying the rather sudden introduction and development of ice hockey in the Soviet Union did not result in these previous assumptions being assimilated. Tarasov's ideas coagulate as an amalgam of the best of borrowed Canadian ice hockey thought, learnings from other sports and learnings from various disciplines and other areas of human endeavour, which have been forced upon the international ice hockey scene because of the success of Soviet ice hockey and the zeal of Tarasov as a major architect of the Soviet success.

Many of Tarasov's ideas are not revolutionary in the sense of being completely new and different. They may be considered revolutionary in the effect of being holistic, successful and upsetting to the existing order in ice hockey. The gestalt of terms and concepts such as: hard work, commitment, team work, serious and intensive training, assembly-line training, sea wave tactics, pressure, excellent technical and tactical play, initiative, constant activity, agility, discipline, athletism, courage, brain over brawn, attack and so on, form the basis of Tarasov's conceptualization of the game of ice hockey which permeates programming for children and youth in the Soviet Union.[99]

During his contact with Soviet ice hockey trainers a boy progressively assimilates the hallmarks of Soviet ice hockey. Hard work, seriousness of purpose, intensive and extensive training are undertaken to develop the technical and tactical skills and knowledges and the character which underpin Soviet ice hockey success. Boys play ice hockey in spite of what may seem to a foreign observer to be sacrifices and hardships imposed through relative shortages of equipment, inaccessibility of facilities, pursuit of long-range and organizationally-dictated goals, and intensive competition.

The functioning of an elite or ultra-elite ice hockey stream which commences with keen competition for placement within a highly select circle of aspiring ice hockey players in the club sports schools appears to be among the more significant features of the Soviet ice hockey system. The identification, selection and training of only some 2,200 to 2,500 boys for top level play seems significant in view of the results achieved by the Soviet ice hockey system. The intensity of training; the rigorous selection process; the marshalling of available resources such as well-trained, knowledgeable trainers and a more-or-less exclusive use of indoor facilities; the singularity of purpose; and the reward structure for achieving a position as a top level player in the Soviet Union are presumed to be key factors in developing so few players to such an extent and in the name of so many.

The concentration upon the development of a select few, while ostensibly being encouraged to overcome the realities of facility, equipment and leadership shortcomings, seems to reinforce dysfunctional effects upon the functioning of other components of the elite ice hockey stream and the mass ice hockey stream. The problems outlined are ravaging in the influence they have upon programming in these other areas. The reality of insufficient resources to support other ice hockey programs seems to stamp the Soviet ice hockey system as being ultra-elite in nature. This ultra-eliteness complements the aims and actualities of representative and instrumental sport.

Within the elite ice hockey stream the following items seem worthy of mention. The early identification and selection procedure for inducting boys into ice hockey training commencing as early as age six is an occurrence which is apparently becoming more widespread as a result of the successes achieved by *TsSKA* and *Kryl'ya Sovetov*. The programming which insures mastery of basics of skating and puck control prior to individual and collective play is also a significant feature of the development process. A third feature is the structure and operation of the club sports schools and Chilren's and Youth's Sports Schools which are responsible for carrying out the planned long-range development program for producing top-level elite ice hockey players. The arrangement whereby the club sports schools and CYSS operate to complement regular school hours allows programming of facilities throughout the day.

Two other special items related to the elite ice hockey stream are the parents' committee and the athlete's card. The parents' committee works mainly with preparatory groups and younger competitive teams up to the age of fifteen years. Their task involves the following: liaison with school authorities and assisting boys to achieve success in school; setting up dressing room and assisting trainers with team training sessions and games; publicity and bulletins to parents and interested others; organization of public functions and meetings; taking boys to movies (on ice hockey, mainly) and other functions such as games; and generally assisting the trainer and the program in whatever way may be deemed appropriate or necessary.[100] The athlete's card, which has been previously discussed in this chapter, seems to be useful in maintaining a complete medical, sports ranking and competitive record on the developing player.

Within the elite ice hockey system mention should be made of the use of weight training for youngsters aged ten, eleven and twelve years. Moros[101] has indicated that the use of light weights up to thirty per cent of body weight for certain exercises of the dynamic type has proven useful in strengthening various muscle groups. According to Moros the weight training has been introduced into three club sports schools as an adjunct to a variety of other items used in dry-land training. Some of the older children's teams, aged eleven and twelve, have employed micro-cycle and meso-cycle training programs to achieve high stress training periods and to fill in gaps in their schedules.

One of the interesting features about team training sessions is the extensive use of half-ice or third-ice zone scrimmages. This training drill seems to reinforce the flow system of play which characterizes European ice hockey. Players on Third and Fourth Boys' teams mostly tried to use the flow system of play with some attention to spatial positioning. Generally the style of play for the youngsters featured considerable individual play, in which the more advanced players tended to dominate the puck and play. Skill-technique execution gave evidence of early concentration upon skating and puck-control skills. The specific technique employed in teaching skating emphasized the lowered body position and agility skating. Many balance and agility challenges were presented to the young players in drills during training sessions. The use of the feet and direct passing and pass-receiving were puck control skills which received special emphasis as well. Although forehand shots were practised in special drills, backhand wrist shots were not. Other drills featured slap shots which tended to be the type of shot which was employed by the boys unless specifically remonstrated by the trainer.

In the preparatory groups in *TsSKA* the boys were not deployed in any specific positions; they were encouraged to develop all their skill-techniques and individual qualities of play. The writer did not observe players positioned as goaltenders until age eight and after; most usually at ages nine and ten years. Special sessions for working with goaltenders tended to employ an older boy shooting and covering certain drills rather than a special goaltending trainer. Two programs, *TsSKA* and *Kryl'ya Sovetov*, do have a special goaltending trainer but the norm appears to have the regular trainer assisted by another person who, in his work with goaltenders, mainly directed shots toward the goal.

Curved sticks were used by most players, including some boys in the preparatory groups. There appear to be no special rules for equipment in children's and youth's ice hockey. Apparently some modifications are made locally regarding the age categories for competition and the length of games. One example of modified competitive conditions is the

TsSKA handicapping system for adjacent age groups in their Tarasov Cup intramural competition. To the writer's knowledge it is the only example wherein special rules regarding bodychecking and score handicapping have been established for competition among different age groups. More usually it seems that the norms of the adult game are standards for children's ice hockey, the single exception being discouragement of excessive bodychecking up to age sixteen. There are, however, strong sanctions applied to establish a clean, sportsmanlike approach to play. It seems that this norm prevails until the senior or adult ice hockey level where play tends to be much rougher.

The training in physical culture institutes which many of the club sport school and CYSS trainers receive equips them with a solid basis for effective teaching when children are learning the skill-techniques of the game. Having full-time trainers who concentrate upon the skill development of youngsters would seem to be creating a solid foundation for later use. Mastery of the basic skill-techniques appears axiomatical in a teaching environment where the main task is skill-technique acquisition. Advancement through the age categories appears to be based in large measure upon skill mastery so a serious approach to training is reinforced.

The aims of the Golden Puck Tournament and the Courtyard Program have been designed to complement and counterbalance the emphasis and direction present in the elite ice hockey stream. The idea of hockey--whether played with a ball or a puck; on ice, field, court, or other surface; with ice hockey stick, bandy stick, field hockey stick or other makeshift implement; with internationally-accepted rules or locally-adapted rules; with seriousness of intent and design or with frivolity and casualness--has been modified and extended to embrace a number of variations, all designed to encourage participation and involvement in the mass sport program sponsored by the Young Communist League. An unknown number of participants may have aspirations towards playing ice hockey with seriousness in the elite ice hockey stream; this group, though ostensibly encouraged, do not pursue the major aims of the program and do not seem to have a real opportunity to achieve their aspirations.

Within the Golden Puck mass ice hockey program a team- and individual-skill testing competition called the "Golden Stick" has been organized by program officials. Included in the competition are skating, passing and pass-receiving, shooting, balance, agility and reaction challenges.[102] The items in the Golden Stick may be used as a competitive test, motivational device or novelty challenge for participants. There do not seem to be centrally-developed norms or a program of recognition employing pins, badges or the like.

"Ready, Set, Go" is a television program designed to assist in the teaching of ice hockey fundamentals (and fundamentals from other sports) to young players.[103] In addition, there is an episodic or infrequent half-hour radio program which is designed to provide instruction to trainers in ice hockey.

Previously the problem areas of shortages in facilities (particularly all-weather facilities), equipment, supplies and trained leaders, have been mentioned as limiting factors to ice hockey in the USSR. To these problem areas may be added the issues which are perceived by some Soviet ice hockey officials as problematical in nature. They are the following: concentration of resources upon a select few; early specialization and the subsequent effects upon the individual; the appropriate age for commencing specialization in a single activity; the appropriate age for, and extent of, competition for boys; the selection process for identification of young ice hockey players who are the best prospects; the appropriateness of various forms of training, such as weight training, for young boys; and the appropriateness of club sports schools, Children's and Youth's Sports Schools, and particularly residential CYSS (*Internat* boarding schools).

SOME CONCLUDING REMARKS

Piecing together the whole of the topic--the organization and development of ice hockey in the Soviet Union--leaves the writer with some questions as to the accuracy of his tentative conclusions which are, in spite of efforts to the contrary, based mainly upon practices in Moscow and Leningrad. A cumulative approach based upon penetrating and critical observation by various researchers in many areas of the USSR is required if progress is to be made towards a more complete knowledge of the area. More contact with the Soviet ice hockey system and more definitive information from Soviet ice hockey officials is required before one can feel confident in ordering the available contradictory and incomplete information on items such as the extent and nature of participation in the streams of Soviet ice hockey.

In most other areas of the topic, progress seems to have been made towards a more complete and reliable view of many of the key questions.

The Soviet ice hockey system may be viewed as a pyramid, but like the iceberg, it seems to have only its tip exposed.

CHAPTER IV FOOTNOTES

[1] Dmitry Ryzhkov, *Our Hockey* (Moscow: Fizkultura i Sport, 1972), pp. 220, 221.

[2] A. Esayev, *Golden Puck* (Moscow: Molodiya Gvardiya, 1973), p. 8. Readers should take note of this date of 1932 in light of the following information from Yuri Korolev, Chairman of the Department of Ice Hockey, Central Institute of Physical Culture of the Order of Lenin. In a lecture entitled, "History of Soviet Ice Hockey," delivered to the 1975 Ice Hockey Specialists' Group, Concordia University Course: Bio-P.E. 620Z - Physical Education and Sport in the USSR, Wednesday, May 26, 1976, Korolev established the date at 1939. This is an example of the difficulty, alluded to in Chapter I, of establishing definitive information on the Soviet Union.

Hart Cantelon, Queen's University, a leading Canadian sports Sovietologist, provided details of the 1932 matches, in personal correspondence to the writer January 12, 1977.

[3] Esayev, loc. cit.

[4] Stalyarov estimates that there are 10,000 outdoor natural ice surfaces in the USSR. P. Stalyarov, Professor, Central Institute of Physical Culture of the Order of Lenin, Remarks from lecture in Concordia University Course: Bio-P.E. 620Z - Physical Education and Sport in the USSR (hereinafter referred to as "Concordia Course"), May 28, 1975, Moscow. Lecture title: "System of Physical Culture in the USSR."

Specific information on artificial ice surfaces supplied by Soviet Ice Hockey Federation, June 3, 1976, Moscow.

[5] H. Cantelon, Jr., "The Historical Development of Ice Hockey in the Soviet Union" (unpublished paper presented at Learned Society Conference, Saskatoon: June 24, 1975).

[6] F. Alexeyev, "Russian Hockey: Speed and Manoeuvre," *Soviet Union Today* (February, 1972), pp. 44-46.

[7] Ryzhkov, loc. cit., p. 6.

[8] Alexeyev, loc. cit., p. 46; and Cantelon, personal correspondence, loc. cit.

[9] Ryzhkov, loc. cit., p. 8.

[10] Ibid., p. 255.

[11] Alexander Brusovansky, Coach of the Ice Hockey Department, Winter Sports Section, Committee on Physical Culture and Sport attached to the USSR Council of Ministers. Remarks from lecture to Concordia Course, June 11, 1975. Lecture title: "Organization of Sport in the USSR."

[12] Russell L. Sturzebecker, "Physical Education and Sport in Russia," *Physical Education Around the World*, William Johnson (ed.), Monograph Number 5, 1971, p. 72.

[13] Brusovansky, op. cit. Placing ice hockey within the Winter Sports Department may be an indication of the relative importance of ice hockey as equal to skating, skiing and so on.

[14] Ibid.

Notes:

a. Council is comprised of 130 people; assembles twice per year; discusses strategic tasks, general problems and so on.

b. Praesidium is comprised of 21 people; conducts regular monthly meetings; conducts everyday business and considers such items as candidates for national teams, schedule for games, hockey development questions and conducts hearings on local and republic matters.

c. Although Brusovansky did not outline the eighth committee in his discussion, it is assumed by the writer to be the omnipresent "Political and Ideological Education Committee."

[15] Brusovansky, op. cit.

[16] James Riordan, "Sport and Physical Education in the Soviet Union" (unpublished paper, University of Bradford, 1975), p. 11.

[17] Brusovansky, op. cit.,; and M. A. Speak and V. H. Ambler, *Physical Education, Recreation and Sport in the U.S.S.R.* (Bailrigg, Lancaster: Centre for Physical Education, 1976), p. 85.

[18] WM Program (Ice Hockey World Championship), *Eishockey Welt-und Europa - Meisterschaft*, 3-19, 4, 1975 (Muncheon and Dusseldorf).

[19] Stalyarov, op. cit., stated that there were 700,000 ice hockey participants within the voluntary form of physical culture which is based upon voluntary sports clubs and sports societies. The figure 600,000 is being accepted in this paper as the more reliable figure.

[20] Brusovansky, op. cit. An interesting comment in view of the much greater participant numbers mentioned in other sources (see footnote 21) is Brusovansky's comment that, " . . . Journalists are hotheads; they develop a fly into an elephant." The figure 325,000 (approximately) is derived in the following manner and is based upon

some assumptions which may not be valid.

Total number of registered participants assumed to be	- 600,000.
Number of players under age eighteen assumed to be	- 420,000.
Number of players in junior division assumed to be	- 71,476.
Number of players in CYSS assumed to be	- 22,307.
Number of players who are not accounted for through CYSS or junior division hockey works out to be 420,000 - (22,307 + 71,476) = 326,217 rounded off to	- 325,000.

[21] Yuri Morozov, Coach of USSR National Junior Team. Remarks from lecture to Concordia Course, June 11, 1975. Lecture title: "Youth Hockey in the USSR."

Notes: Other estimates include the following statements:

a. 3,000,000 participants: "News Capsule" (for cover picture), *Soviet Union*, Number 12, 1974.

b. 2,000,000-plus participants: Anatoli Tarasov, former National Team Coach of the USSR, remarks from Concordia Course, June 7, 1976. Lecture title: "Comparisons of Canadian and Soviet Ice Hockey."

c. As many as 3,000,000 participants: Nina Chernova, "Mass-Scale Children's Sport," *Sport in the USSR*, Number 3, 1975, p. 20.

d. 2,500,000 participants: Information supplied by Soviet Ice Hockey Federation, June 5, 1976.

e. 2,500,000 participants: James Marshall, et al., *Russian Hockey Packet* (Guelph: Can-Am Ltd., 1974), published lecture notes from 1974 Concordia Course, p. 2.

f. 2,000,000 participants; Yuri Korolev, Chairman of Department of Ice Hockey, Central Institute of Physical Culture of the Order of Lenin, in a question and answer session on Soviet ice hockey during Concordia Course, June 10, 1975.

g. Personal intuition and reflection reinforced by observations leads the writer to the opinion that the majority of the figures supplied seem to be exaggerated.

[22] Morozov, op. cit.

[23] Information supplied by Soviet Ice Hockey Federation, June 3, 1976, Moscow.

[24] Morozov, op. cit.

[25] Ibid., and information supplied by Soviet Ice Hockey Federation, June 3, 1976, Moscow.

[26] Information supplied by Soviet Ice Hockey Federation, June 3, 1976, Moscow. If one attempts to obtain a clearer delineation within the total picture of ice hockey in the USSR, a number of difficulties arise. The distribution within the elite ice hockey stream seems quite uneven. The ten specialized ice hockey schools enrol between 220 and 250 boys each so a sub-total of some 2,200 to 2,500 boys are nurtured in this ultra-elite development stream. Six of these specialized

schools are attached to Superior League teams, so forty-six other sports schools are organized to provide programming which emphasizes ice hockey development towards Superior First and Second Division teams. Generally these schools are not quite as large as the ten specialized ice hockey schools; however, Morosov indicates that approximately ten teams or groups are the norm so approximately 9,200 young players are programmed in this set-up. This would seem to leave approximately 11,000 young players distributed among the other 105 sports schools which apparently do not place quite as much stress upon ice hockey programming.

The Central Army Sport Club (*TsSKA* - Moscow) which will be discussed later in the chapter, is ostensibly the largest ice hockey sports school with upwards of 400 participants. The five other ice hockey sports schools attached to Superior League teams are *Dinamo* Sports Society - Moscow, *Spartak* Sports Club - Moscow, Wings of the Soviet - Moscow, *Torpedo Gorky* - Gorki, and Army Sports Club (*SKA* - Leningrad) - Leningrad. The first four named are attached to the four Superior League teams which have traditionally supplied the Soviet National team with its players. The *Dinamo*, *Spartak* and Wings schools embrace between 260 and 380 players so they also are larger than the norm for the ten specialized sports schools.

[27] Ibid. Note: These sports schools sponsored by sports societies and sports clubs with Superior, First or Second Division teams will be referred to hereinafter as "Club Sports Schools."

[28] Notes:

a. Estimates are based upon the known numbers of participants in certain categories of play (see figures for elite ice hockey and junior ice hockey divisions), extrapolation of profiles of sports clubs and a composite impression of the mass ice hockey stream. The reader may note that the mass ice hockey stream is perceived to be not nearly as large as the stated figures, and that a number of reservations and limitations must be appended to the estimated profile.

i. Less information of substance on the situation in the USSR is available to the writer and where information does exist it seems in many instances to be flawed and incongruous. For example, the observations and reflections of the writer, reinforced by correspondence with H. Cantelon (loc. cit.), does not seem to support the statement that there are 180,000 participants playing ice hockey after their nineteenth birthdays. This segment seems very large in proportion to other known segments and to the USSR social situation. Secondly, the statements supporting the large number of participants in the Golden Puck Tournament seem to be exaggerated. Figures of from 2,500,000 to 3,000,000 seem to be out of line with the writer's observations and reflections and with the problems facing all Soviet ice hockey but particularly mass ice hockey (lack of equipment and supplies; hardships imposed by climatic conditions upon natural ice surfaces; and organizational demands).

ii. Conflicting information is extant from equally well-placed authorities. For example, the range of responses on the numbers of Golden Puck Cup competitors, and the conflicting responses as to the 325,000 participants who are organized in youth and children's ice hockey may be cited as two illustrations of this difficulty.

iii. Some information is totally lacking and unavailable to the writer. For example, the number of competitors and participants without skates and other items of equipment is completely unknown. Observation of four courtyard rinks seemed to support the notion that many participants in the Courtyard Program and the Golden Puck Tournament (especially at the younger age levels) do not have skates and more commonly do not have much other equipment. It appeared to be a fairly common practice that boys play on the rink without skates and more usually without equipment. Ostensibly, once a boy had a stick he was all set to join in the casual matches or shinny games.

b. The categories may be explained more completely in the following manner:

i. Ultra-Elite Ice Hockey Stream--Includes participants in the club sports schools sponsored by Superior, First and Second Division League teams.

ii. Elite Ice Hockey Stream--Includes participants in the Children's and Youth's Sports Schools (CYSS) which are sponsored by the Young Communist League (*Komsomol*).

iii. Junior Division Ice Hockey Stream--Includes participants within the framework of physical culture voluntary organizations including sports societies, trade unions, farm collectives and other sports clubs.

iv. Mass Ice Hockey Stream--Organized Participants--Includes participants (aged 10 to 16) in the Golden Puck Tournament, juniors, and adults other than Superior, First and Second Division League competitors.

v. Mass Ice Hockey Stream--Golden Puck and Courtyard Program participants--Includes participants in recreational ice hockey who participate locally and episodically in the Golden Puck and primarily in the Courtyard Programs under the auspices of *Komsomol*.

vi. Mass Ice Hockey Stream--Casual, recreational participants--Includes other participants who participate episodically in ice hockey.

c. The elite stream of ice hockey will be elaborated in Illustration 4.4 later in this chapter. It may be noted that there are 10 Superior League teams, 14 First Division teams and 28 Second Division teams. The 52 sports schools attached to these teams are seen to be an especially significant segment of the elite ice hockey stream and as such their participants are separated from participants in other CYSS which are not attached to one of the teams.

d. Children aged 6 through 9 in the ultra-elite ice hockey stream are a growing segment of programming which, although very small in numbers, represent the trend in developing players. This age group in the mass ice hockey stream is not organized although 8 and

9 year-old boys may participate in local Golden Puck competitions. Some children aged 6 and 7 years engage in competitive matches as part of the teams organized for 8 and 9 year-olds, but the majority of younger boys do not.

e. Children aged 10 to 12 years comprise the second level of competition in the Golden Puck Tournament. Youth aged 13 and 14 years, and 15 and 16 years, comprise the third and fourth categories of competition. The latter category was commenced in the 1974-75 season so participation was expected to be very light.

f. Children are generally accepted into the Children's and Youth's Sports Schools at age 10 years and are allowed to continue until age 17 or 18 years if their progress is suitable. Annually, 60 to 80 boys aged six years are accepted into the Central Army Sports Club school. In 1974-75, *Dinamo*, *Spartak* and *Kryl'ya Sovetov* enrolled boys at age eight years. The four Moscow schools are exceptions to the general practice of enrolling children at age ten years. They are, however, the models for the trend towards earlier starts for children in the elite ice hockey stream. *Kryl'ya Sovetov* have reportedly piloted through six year-olds and their success, and the *TsSKA* success has encouraged them to commence enrolling six year-old boys in 1975-76.

g. The boundaries for the various categories of mass ice hockey have been added to those for junior and elite ice hockey to provide a composite profile of the entire ice hockey situation.

h. Estimates of numbers of participants (1974-75):

Elite Ice Hockey Stream:

Categories	Ultra-Elite Ice Hockey Stream	Elite Ice Hockey	Junior Division
19+	1040	-	-
17,18	1040	1550	9000
16	1040	1550	9000
15	1040	1550	9000
14	1040	1550	9000
13	1040	1550	9000
12	1040	1550	9000
11	1040	1550	9000
10	1040	1550	9000
9	200	-	-
8	200	-	-
7	100	-	-
6	100	-	-
Totals:	9960	12,400	72,000

Mass Ice Hockey Stream:

Categories	Organized Golden Puck and Adult	Unorganized Golden Puck & Courtyard	Casual	Publicity Numbers
19+	180,000	-	5,000	30,000
17,18	10,000	-	20,000	70,000
16	10,000	-	20,000	80,000
15	10,000	-	20,000	90,000
14	35,000	40,000	10,000	120,000
13	65,000	90,000	15,000	160,000
12	75,000	100,000	15,000	210,000
11	65,000	100,000	15,000	200,000
10	55,000	100,000	15,000	180,000
9	-	115,000	15,000	130,000
8	-	100,000	15,000	100,000
7	-	40,000	40,000	80,000
6	-	10,000	45,000	50,000
Totals:	505,000*	695,000	250,000	1,500,000

*180,000 adults, 20,000 older youth, 305,000 participants in Golden Puck Tournament.

Readers are well-advised to note that as one moves to the right hand side in the table in the mass ice hockey stream, the estimates become more speculative and open to error. It may be noted that the number of participants in the Golden Puck Tournament has been set low by the writer. If the publicity figures of 2,500,000 are accurate, which the writer is inclined to doubt, then the final column of the table, Publicity Numbers, will round out the total of the Mass Ice Hockey stream to 2,500,000 participants. This column, however, is not included on Illustration 4.3. The rationale for this decision are the following:

i. Many Golden Puck Tournament players play using street shoes (or reportedly roller skates, which also appear to be in very short supply) in areas where ice is unavailable so this would reduce the number of ice hockey participants.

ii. The sheer magnitude of equipping, organizing, leading and providing ice for such large numbers of participants seems improbable in light of the lack of equipment, officials, indoor ice and leaders. If the figure, 3,000,000, were accepted, then a minimum of 150,000 to 200,000 teams would need to be accommodated, and such an immense undertaking seems improbable to the writer.

iii. The situation in Leningrad and particularly in Moscow did not seem to reflect much casual participation and seemingly reflected a total lack of courtyard play during the writer's period of observation in the USSR.

iv. The component wherein the writer may be courting the greatest error is the underestimation of the extent of the Courtyard Program. It is suspected that the seemingly inflated numbers of Golden Puck Tournament participants may be based upon an extrapolation of some model courtyard programs.

i. 305,000 participants in the Golden Puck Tournament are included in the organized ice hockey category of the mass ice hockey stream. (Age 10 - 55,000; 11 - 65,000; 12 - 75,000; 13 - 65,000; 14 - 35,000; 15 - 7,500; 16 - 2,500).

[29] Brusovansky, op. cit.

[30] Marshall, et al., loc. cit., p. 15.

[31] For purposes of the paper the following sports club names will be employed: Central Army Sports Club - *TsSKA*; *Kryl'ya Sovetov* - Soviet Wings - *KS; Dinamo* - Dinamo; *Spartak* - Spartak; *Lokmotiv* - Locomotive; *Torpedo Gorky* - Torpedo Gorki; Leningrad Army - *SKA; Traktor* - Tractor; *Zenit* - Zenit; Novosibirsk - *Sibir; Khimik* - Chimik; *Dinamo Riga* - Dinamo Riga.

[32] Igor Tuzik, Coach of *Kryl'ya Sovetov* Midget team. Remarks from lecture on "Youth Hockey" to Concordia Course, June 11, 1975.

[33] Ibid.

[34] James Riordan, loc. cit., p. 20; see also James Riordan, "Soviet Sport and Soviet Foreign Policy," *Soviet Studies*, vol. 26; no. 3, July, 1974, pp. 322-343.

[35] Notes.

a. The estimates for Illustration 4.4 are based upon figures provided by Morozov, op. cit.; Korolev, op. cit.; Brusovansky, op. cit.; Soviet Ice Hockey Federation, op. cit.; and Galumazov, op. cit. Figures relate to 1974-75 ice hockey season.

b. The club sports schools participants seem to comprise an ultra-elite stream of development within Soviet ice hockey. There would seem to be approximately 1040 participants at each of the categories age 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17 and 18, 19 and older; approximately 200 participants at each of ages 8 and 9; and approximately 100 participants at ages 6 and 7 years.

c. The Children's and Youth's Sports Schools seem to embrace approximately 1673 participants at each age level 10 through 17 and 18, inclusive.

d. The Junior Division, although technically not in the elite ice hockey stream, has been included in Illustration 4.4 because it is more closely related to the elite stream than to the mass ice hockey stream. It is estimated that it may include some 9000 participants at each age level 10 through 17 and 18 years, inclusive.

[36] *Teoriya i Praktika fizicheskoi kul'tury* (No. 1: 1977), refers to testing the "speed-strength qualities" of four year olds. Referred to in correspondence from H. Cantelon, op. cit.

This early selection may be explained in many instances by keen and aggressive parents and boys who, in their eagerness to join the select circle of aspirant hockey players within the club sports school, obfuscate the actual age of the boy at least until he proves successful in joining and/or becoming ensconced in the school. One must recognize the importance of such status in the milieu of Soviet society, even though more parents would presumably prefer success in educational or artistic endeavor.

[37] Screening protocol as outlined by a member of the "Parents' Committee" attached to the preparatory group of six year-olds in the *TsSKA* club sports school. The same parent outlined the entrance of children into the hockey school before age six, during a discussion at *TsSKA* ice arena in Moscow, December 19, 1974. A trainer with *TsSKA*, Nikolai Galumasov, stated that the testing protocol embraced mainly the skating component and to a lesser extent, the evaluation of physical attributes. He indicated that the time factor ruled out the possibility of exhaustive screening of all the candidates who turn out for the *TsSKA* club sports school. The candidates who make successive cut-offs are apparently asked to complete a more complete screening protocol. Remarks made during an interview with Nikolai Galumasov, Youth ice hockey trainer with *TsSKA*, May 31, 1976, Moscow. In reality, it seems that personal connections may rank highest in importance in gaining membership in *TsSKA* in particular.

[38] Ibid. Galumazov has indicated that nearly 2000 boys have turned out at the start of the season and during the year for *TsSKA* and that up to 1000 have turned out to *Kryl'ya Sovetov*. Cantelon, personal correspondence, op. cit., points out that in two years of monitoring Soviet publications he has noticed only one *TsSKA* advertisement. Furthermore, the selection process may not be as intense as we are led to believe.

[39] Tuzik, op. cit. The figure of 1000 seems out of line with what seems reasonable. Even the *TsSKA* estimation seems high.

[40] Composite structure based upon the following sources:

a. Interview with Nikolai Galumasov, op. cit.
b. Concordia Course article, "Special Features and Peculiarities of Hockey Players Connected with their Age and Growing Period, as Well as Physical Qualities which Develop Most Favorably During Their Growing Time," May, 1975, Moscow.
c. Marshall, et al., op. cit.
d. Discussion with member of Parents' Committee, op. cit.

[41] Tuzik, op. cit.

[42] Brusovansky, op. cit.

[43] Information provided to the writer in an interview with Mr. Lebedev, Administrator for the Leningrad City Sports Committee, December 10, 1974, Leningrad.

[44] Ibid.

[45] Lebedev, op. cit. Note: Comparison of this age breakdown for Leningrad with the age classification for *TsSKA* will point out that there are apparently area differences in the organization of ice hockey. Much more study will be required to determine the extent of these intra-national differences. Canadians generally are aware of only some of what is happening in Moscow and not of the Soviet Union in total. From comments made by trainers from First Division teams in smaller centers of population, it seems that each locale tries to operate within league guidelines, but that failing that the local authorities develop programming and structure which is expedient and pragmatic, including such things as adherence to age divisions.

[46] Can-Am, loc. cit., p. 15.

[47] In "The Russian Hockey Packet," op. cit., the authors report that in general, children are not supposed to begin competitive athletics until the age of nine. " . . . however, this serves as a guide rather than a hard and fast regulation because Soviet coaches make little by way of excusing their open and active recruitment programmes for talented young athletes for the sports schools." (p. 15). The author questioned two Soviet authorities but could not effectively probe to determine the basis of this statement other than allusion to a study which established that programming team play at too early an age required more skills than could be programmed into an eight year-old or younger boy. The source and further particulars on the study could not be ascertained.

[48] Dennis McDonald, "Report on Hockey Development in the USSR and Czechoslovakia," June 15, 1973. Position attributed to the Dean of Ice Hockey at the Institute of Physical Culture, p. 7.

[49] Stalyarov, op. cit.

[50] For example, Howie Meeker, CBC Hockey Night in Canada broadcaster. Remarks made during intermission of November 13, 1976 National Hockey League game.

[51] An indication of this interest appeared to be expressed in the questionnaire which the Chief of the Ice Hockey Department of the Central Sports Committee, Vasilii Koloskov, asked the 1975 Ice Hockey Specialists' Study Group, Concordia Course, to complete. The basis of the questionnaire related to hockey for boys twelve and under, and ten and under, and sought to determine a Canadian profile on the

questions of age level emphasis for programming with particular reference in part to the role of competition. Cantelon, personal correspondence, op. cit., reinforces the point that Soviet authorities support earlier competition.

[52] The date, December 31, serves as a cut-off point for all age classifications.

[53] Considerable difficulty in communication was encountered while working through the translators on this point. Use of a sequential age chart diagrammed on a chalkboard, in two instances, led only to a reiteration of the previous stand by Soviet authorities, although agreement was developed for all intervening stages in the evolution of the boys' age. All the officials attested to the December 31, 1964 date but split opinion emerged on the actual age of the boys.

[54] Despite the divided opinion on the actual age outlined by Morozov, op. cit., and others who indicate that boys officially start organized competition at eleven years of age, the writer encourages the viewpoint that competition starts in the elite stream by age ten years.

[55] Tuzik, op. cit.

[56] Stalyarov, op. cit.

[57] Ibid.; and Cantelon, personal correspondence, op. cit. Cantelon recounts Koloskov's statement that boys may play in higher categories of play if they obtain medical permission.

[58] Ibid.

[59] Discussion with member of *TsSKA* preparatory group Parents' Committee, op. cit. Note competition is called the Tarasov Cup in recognition of Anatoli Tarasov.

[60] Nikolai Galumazov, in response to question during question and answer session at conclusion of lecture on "Differences in Interpretation in Checking" to Concordia Course, June 10, 1975, Moscow.

[61] Remark made by an unidentified trainer during the discussion period at the conclusion of Galumazov's lecture, op. cit.

[62] Tuzik, op. cit.

[63] "Golden Puck Prize," article prepared for Concordia Course, 1975, Moscow.

[64] Tuzik, op. cit.

[65] Morozov, op. cit.

[66] Article entitled, "Special Features and Peculiarities of Hockey Players Connected with Their Age and Growing Period, as well as Physical Qualities which Develop Most Favorably During Their Growing Time," loc. cit., p. 13.

[67] Riordan, loc. cit., p. 17.

[68] Ibid.

[69] Fifty-two of the sports schools specializing in ice hockey are attached to sports societies and sports clubs which organize the fifty-two Superior, First and Second Division League teams. This leaves a further one hundred and nine sport schools which are assumed to be organized by other sports societies and sports clubs which do not have top adult teams and the Republican Ministries of Education, through the *Komsomol* Organization. Information supplied by Soviet Ice Hockey Federation, loc. cit.

[70] Lebedev, op. cit.

[71] Further clarification may be desirable. The *Komsomol* organization is also responsible for running Children's and Youth's Sports Clubs (CYSC). These sports clubs are held at the same time as the CYSS, but their task is one of providing recreational services and opportunities in a range of activities which include participation in physical and sports activity. These sports clubs provide only limited instruction in skating and ice hockey in the context of recreational services. They are related to the Courtyard Program and Golden Puck Tournament. In short, the sports clubs are a recreation-serving club, rather than an athletic training organization. The reader should also recognize that those recreational sports clubs sponsored by the *Komsomol* Organization are not synonymous with the term, sports clubs, which has been used to refer to the *TsSKA*, *SKA*, *Dinamo* Sports Clubs.

[72] In 1974-75 it was reported by the Soviet Ice Hockey Federation that of the 437 trainers working with ice hockey in the 161 sports schools, 290 were full-time trainers. Of these 290, 180 had taken special physical culture training in preparation for their work in ice hockey.

[73] Morozov, op. cit.; Cantelon, personal correspondence, op. cit., indicates that economics enters the picture. A trainer may be paid in different ways--according to the number of participants under his supervision; number of sections under supervision; how well his teams do in competition; and according to how many athletes earn sports rankings.

[74] Tuzik, op. cit.

[75] Ibid.

[76] Vasilii Koloskov, Head of the Ice Hockey Department, Central Sports Committee. Information from lecture titled, "Planning Throughout the Year," delivered to Concordia Course, June 4, 1975, Moscow.

[77] Methodology Cabinet, *Hockey Program for Children's-Youth's Sport Schools* (Moscow: Central Committee on Physical Culture and Sport, 1971).

[78] Galumazov, interview on May 31, 1976, op. cit.

[79] The information presented in Table 4.3 is derived from the following sources:

a. The writer's observations of Soviet ice hockey training sessions, and information gleaned through structured interviews with Soviet trainers and ice hockey officials.

b. Information provided through participation in the 1975 and 1976 Concordia Courses.

c. Concordia Course hand-out, "Special Features and Peculiarities of Hockey Players . . . ," loc. cit., p. 18.

It should be noted that the writer has added the six to eight year-old category to the other three categories, which have been fleshed out from the above-mentioned article. The information for this category is based primarily upon the *TsSKA* and *Kryl'ya Sovetov* programs and on structured interviews with responsible and/or knowledgeable club sports school officials.

[80] The "typical" training session is a synthesis of eight training sessions with preparatory groups from the *TsSKA* club sports school. Six of the ice sessions observed were with the A group, two with the B group.

[81] The "typical" training session for the older preparatory groups and youngest boys' teams is a synthesis of training session observations and interviews with Soviet ice hockey functionaries. The training sessions of *Storm* (Leningrad) and *TsSKA*, *Dinamo* and *Spartak* (all from Moscow) provide the experiential basis for the synthesis. The content generally outlined in Table 4.4 was present in the training sessions observed by the writer.

[82] Notes:

a. The information for this table has been derived mainly from personal observation and structured interviews with Soviet ice hockey functionaries.

b. The issue of the type and extent of competition is under revision; and the trend seems to be towards more games for younger age groups.

c. Adjacent group games might involve a given age group playing a game against the age group immediately above or immediately below. In *TsSKA* the games are handicap games wherein special rules prevail for controlling bodychecking, scoring and so on.

d. Training sessions for mass ice hockey stream participants depend upon local conditions such as organizational structure, including leadership and interest, climatic conditions and accessibility to natural ice.

---

[83] Tuzik, op. cit.

[84] Ibid.

[85] Cooperation in locating any reports, articles or write-ups on research activity with children was not forthcoming. When the writer pressed the Soviet spokesman as to names, sources and particulars, further information was not available.

[86] Lebedev, op. cit.

[87] Tuzik, op. cit.

[88] Morozov, op. cit.

[89] Two dates are given for the inception of the program; some reports indicate the date as 1964, others, 1965. It would seem that both dates could be correct: 1964, for conception, publicity and initial stages of competition; and 1965 for culmination of the tournament.

[90] "Golden Puck Prize," loc. cit., p. 5.

[91] In a winter such as occurred in 1974-75, the opportunity for play in the usual months of November, December and January was severely curtailed by warm weather which did not allow ice-making in most of the courtyard rinks in Moscow. The weather factor is of major importance in determining extent of play and success of the program.

[92] The first stage is played in the winter, the second stage prior to March 10.

[93] It is also seen by the *Komsomol* as a way of channeling the activities of youth and involving them in the youth movement. The claim that different teams are selected is disputed by Cantelon, personal correspondence, op. cit. Cantelon indicates that meritocracy and success at various levels were the key criteria.

[94] "Golden Puck Prize," loc. cit., p. 5.

[95] Morozov, op. cit.

[96] The writer attempted to maintain surveillance over six courtyard rinks during his stay in Moscow. Two of these seemed to receive much more attention than the other four, and as a result were used fairly regularly. The four rinks which were not maintained with any regularity were mostly inoperable. At the same time, the walkways, running tracks, some football fields, outdoor courts (for tennis, basketball and volleyball) and the outdoor rinks in the Luzhniki sports complex were all flooded and holding ice about fifty per cent of the time. Other areas of Moscow sustained ice about half the time so it was possible to monitor the use the ice surfaces received. Regular spotchecks pointed out the following observations.

Luzhniki, Sokolniki and other flooded park-like areas were well-used on Sundays and holidays, to a lesser extent on Saturdays and weekdays. Games of shinny were popular, but not so popular, it seemed, so as to be able to extrapolate the observed numbers and kinds of participants towards a per capita Moscow share of the USSR figure approaching 3,000,000; that is, unless Moscow is atypical and a weak center for courtyard programming and Golden Puck Tournament (which apparently it may be). Many participants played without skates, and still more without equipment other than skates and a stick. It was quite common for boys to play in street shoes or boots. The skill level exhibited by most participants was not very strong in the sense of giving an indication of skill-technique instruction. It is the writer's tentative conclusion that if the figure of two to three million participants were accepted it would be based upon all participants regardless of frequency and extent of participation and the nature of participation (that is, statistics would include participants who did not actually skate). In addition, it may be noted that the statistics officially include participants who play ball hockey games because they are in areas of the USSR where no ice is located.

[97] The cost of skates and sticks seemed expensive in relation to mean monthly salaries. In numerous visits to various sporting goods shops the writer could not locate items of equipment other than skates and occasionally hockey sticks, nor hockey sticks which approximated the quality of the sticks used by club sport school teams. The implication is that equipment is very scarce and where it does exist it is appropriated for use in the elite ice hockey stream. In the elite stream, however, a number of boys participated without the full outfit of equipment which may point to an overall paucity of equipment.

[98] Riordan, loc. cit., p. 11. Some officials, particularly those working with elite athletes, do not appear to favor massification. Cantelon, personal correspondence, op. cit.

[99] Anatoli Tarasov, *Road to Olympus* (Toronto: Griffin House, 1967),

[100] Tuzik, op. cit.

[101] Roman Moros, Professor in Weight Training Department, Central Institute of Physical Culture of the Order of Lenin. Remarks from lecture titled, "Dryland Training in Ice Hockey," delivered to Concordia Course, June 1, 1976, Moscow.

[102] A. Esayev, loc. cit., pp. 133-141. Included in the Golden Stick competition are the following items: team relay skating race with puck; team relay obstacle race with puck; passing off the boards with rebound pass receiving through an obstacle course; accuracy shooting; skating race over hockey sticks lying on ice; rooster fight in a circle; and keepaway bull-in-the-ring drill.

[103] Marshall, loc. cit., p. 12, and Morozov, op. cit.

Chapter V

THE ORGANIZATION AND DEVELOPMENT OF ICE HOCKEY IN CANADA DURING CHILDHOOD

INTRODUCTION

Canada is viewed as the cradle and motherland of the game of ice hockey as it is now played in North America, Europe, Asia, Africa and Australia under the auspices of the International Ice Hockey Federation (I.I.H.F.). Whether Canada is the actual birthplace of the game seems open to some question in view of the similar ice games which were occurring in England and Holland prior to what is regarded as the first "ice hockey" game, as early as 1855 in Kingston, in Canada; and the evidence that Imperial (British) troops as early as 1783 were proficient skaters and participated in field hockey.[1] Evidence of a game called shinny is mentioned as early as 1847, but little solid evidence appears to be available as to whether lacrosse-type or field hockey-type games on ice were antecedents to "ice hockey" in a Canadian line of evolution.[2]

Regardless of the uncertainty as to particulars, it seems apparent that ice hockey in some form may be traced back to at least the 1850s and that these forms of the game have a relatively long period of historical development in the Canadian culture.

By some, ice hockey is regarded as the "official" national sport of Canada; by others, it is regarded, alongside lacrosse, as an "official" national sport of Canada; still others regard ice hockey as an "unofficial" national sport of Canada; and to a fourth group, ice hockey is simply a sport which has been played in Canada without regard for such "official" or "unofficial" national sport status.[3]

Notwithstanding the foregoing historical mystery and status controversy, ice hockey seems to be deeply rooted in the sporting and cultural mosaic of Canada. At various times ice hockey has been referred to as the common language, the common religion, the common denominator, the common culture, the common bond, and/or the common heritage of Canadians. For Canadian males hockey may serve as the "rites of passage" into manhood; and as a basis for "jock machismo." Ice hockey has also been described as the Canadian metaphor, the Canadian Thing, the Canadian specific, the national drama, the national dream, the national pastime, and as the source of meaning for defining oneself as Canadian.[4]

Some of the foregoing descriptions may seem somehow overblown and pretentious; when the collective representation filtered from such descriptions is considered, however, ice hockey may be seen to hold a significant place in the Canadian culture.

GENERAL OUTLINE OF ICE HOCKEY SYSTEM OF CANADA

It has been estimated that currently there may be as many as 750,000 or 800,000 active participants in ice hockey in Canada, with the majority of players in the eight to fourteen age bracket.[5] In another source, the number of participants registered and affiliated with the Canadian Amateur Hockey Association (CAHA) is listed as

700,000.[6] It seems reasonable to accept 750,000 as an operational total for use in this discussion. The cultural backdrop, the generally favorable climatic conditions for support of natural ice and the numerous indoor artificial ice surfaces in all areas, including those areas whose climate precludes natural ice, have combined to support ice hockey in all geographical regions and locations in Canada. Ice hockey is played in tiny hamlets, in all provinces, in remote settlements such as Frobisher Bay in the Northwest Territories, and in larger cities and centers of population throughout Canada.

The facilities for play range from frozen natural ice on sloughs and creeks, through home-made rinks and community rinks, to artificial ice edifices for professional and representative team ice hockey. In 1974 the Fitness and Amateur Sport Branch of the Department of National Health and Welfare conducted an inventory of sport facilities in Canadian localities with populations above 1,000; they determined that there were 1,136 indoor rinks and 842 outdoor rinks.[7] These figures presumably do not reflect the actual situation because some figures supplied to the writer by officials of branches of the Canadian Amateur Hockey Association indicate many more facilities in the provinces than are shown in the 1974 survey. In the writer's estimation it is more likely that there are approximately 2,000 to 2,100 indoor arenas (and rinks) and an estimated minimum of 6,000 to 7,000 outdoor rinks, in addition to an untold number of backyard patches of ice.[8] Whatever the exact total, the number of facilities for ice hockey may seem impressive; however, according to officials scheduling indoor ice facilities the demand from users far exceeds the facilities available (during evenings, holidays and weekends). There appear to be another 30 or 40 private indoor ice facilities erected by sporting and social clubs which are generally only for the use of the club membership; and another 10 to 20 commercial indoor ice facilities, which have been erected by entrepreneurs who hope to generate a profit from facility rental.[9]

Local and municipal government authorities erect and maintain most indoor and outdoor rinks in Canada. Each authority has a scheduling priorization which reflects local philosophy and political exigencies. Generally speaking, minor ice hockey groups have their use of local and municipal facilities heavily subsidized by local and municicipal governments. Most recreation departments and officials have sufficient financial support to operate ice hockey programming as a community service to children and youth so that cost to the participant or his family is relatively small. Equipment and supplies are readily available to participants and it would seem the rare instance of financial hardship in which a potential participant would be hindered from playing. Participation in ice hockey for children appears to be limited more by access to indoor ice facilities and usable outdoor ice than by anything else.[10]

The availability of facilities, especially indoor ones, is ostensibly also a major influence upon the type of programming, whether it is for the select few, for the many, or for some combination of the two types. The facilities in rural localities generally do not seem to be under such intense pressure as in urban localities, so that interested participants appear to have a better chance of being accommodated and of receiving relatively more ice time for all categories of play. Apparently a shortage of volunteer leadership is a more influential factor than ice availability in the extent and nature of programming.

Community organizations and interested volunteers within the various communities comprise the main force for the organization and development of ice hockey for children in Canada. Participation in children's and youth minor ice hockey is based primarily upon geographical divisions. These divisions may be regional, town- or village-based, or delimited areas within cities or large towns.[11] In some localities educational authorities and specially constituted hockey clubs or organizations are actively involved in direct competition with community-based programs; whereas in other localities these programs operate as a complement or supplement to the programs operated by community forces.

Community-based programs constitute the mainstream of children's ice hockey programming in Canada and as such, are effectively the main development route for children. In sufficiently large communities or centers of population there normally appear to be two streams of programming; houseleague or participation-oriented programming which may be viewed as mass ice hockey stream programming, and representative (rep.) or all-star team programming which may be viewed as the incipient stages of elite ice hockey stream programming. In smaller communities and centers of population usually one one type of programming, which tends to be representative or elite stream programming, is supported. Within the community-based programs the representative team or elite ice hockey stream is the main development route for players wishing to advance eventually to professional ice hockey play.

For youth, aged thirteen upwards, the situation is less clear and it seems fair to generalize that in larger centers of population, organizations other than communities become as important or more important in the production of top-level players. The relative importance apparently swings toward the organization which organizes and sponsors all-star teams, representative teams, and/or teams from a wider geographical base which play in the highest-rated categories of play. In many communities, community forces continue to organize all categories of ice hockey programming for youth, whereas in other communities, the responsibility for top categories of programming at about age thirteen or fourteen years is assumed by other community, special, or educational organizations.[12] In smaller centers of population and rural areas the programming normally develops through the representative town or village teams for all age categories so special organizations do not have an opportunity to play any role.

In numerous localities the special organizations are part of either a loosely or closely-aligned working arrangement with junior ice hockey interests. Regardless of the alignment, boys who have the ability to play on all-star, representative and top-category teams are usually encouraged towards continuing their development and becoming junior ice hockey players, or in other words, apprentice professional players. The talent search by junior ice hockey officials and professional scouts pervades all of the better categories of play and is the dominant factor in the rationale behind the current structure of ice hockey in Canada and the current role of the CAHA.

Aspiration towards becoming a professional ice hockey player is a strongly-reinforced goal for Canadian boys. The myth of becoming a professional player appears to be one of the most widely-held and well-fed of all the fictions in Canadian society. If one reads the autobiographies of ice hockey stars or other books on Canadian ice hockey then the socialization process (or professionalization process) usually becomes quite obvious.[13] Conacher states in reference to the perfect talent market possessed by the N.H.L. that, " . . . every boy in Canada who played hockey was conditioned from his earliest playing days to believe that the pinnacle of success as a hockey player was the N.H.L."[14]

Parents, relatives, coaches, media and other "hockey hangers-on" all contribute towards reinforcing the desirability of making professional ice hockey one's occupation. Aspects of the whole process may be summarized in the following treatise:

> Most nations have their game. A child born in those countries picks it up as soon as he's able to stand upright. In Canada it's hockey, . . .
>
> . . . the first "boy" thing given to a Canadian kid is a hockey stick. Rich, poor, Wasp, Ethnik, East, West, that stick gets put in a boy's hands and somebody almost immediately drops something--a puck, a ball, a rock, potato, ashtray, rubber heels, coaster, bathtub stopper, anything smaller than a football but bigger than a dime, and that kid begins to shoot.
>
> Two year olds swing a stick like a scythe, fanning much but sometimes making contact in a combined golf-shot, broomsweep, slapshot. By four this same boy is expected to be sturdy on his

> skates, stop without the help of a crash into the boards, skate with the puck and aim it at a goal. By six he's supposed to show promise of being "the next Bobby Orr."
>
> . . . .
>
> As one rises in hockey's hierarchy one inevitably comes into an NHL Scout's ken. Or a PeeWee coach, anxious to boast of his superior teaching ability, ballyhoos his kids as though they were running for some federal electoral seat. As one travels along with NHL teams one is constantly running into the guy who "spotted Bobby Orr when he was only nine," or "Wayne Cashman when he was twelve," or "Pete Mahovlich when he was only so high." Coaches, managers and fans continue to identify with NHL stars who have passed through a local team for even part of a season. Local papers follow the progress of anyone in the area who made it into the NHL, and continue to do so for the rest of that man's hockey career. The NHL is The Big Time, the National Dream.[15]

When the "National Dream" is translated into cold, hard figures, 0.173 per cent of the 750,000 Canadian ice hockey players might have a chance to play professional ice hockey with one of the sixty-six professional teams in North America; and only 0.053 per cent might have a chance to play in the NHL in a given year and fully realize the dream. Otherwise expressed, approximately one player in 577 might have an opportunity to play at one of the levels of professional ice hockey; and approximately one player in 1,875 might have an opportunity to play in the NHL. Even among players who do turn professional, seventy per cent do not have the opportunity to play in the NHL, as minor professional teams constitute the apex of their careers.[16]

In spite of these figures and the relative proportions involved, the complete Canadian ice hockey system has until very recently been almost exclusively organized and structured in accordance with the needs and dictates of the NHL. The NHL operated as a monopoly in the ice hockey industry and reigned as the unrivaled power in Canadian ice hockey circles until developments internally--such as league expansion, formation of a players' association, and increasingly violent play--and externally; including evolution of international ice hockey standards of play, formation of the World Hockey Association (WHA), malaise and discontent with minor and amateur ice hockey in Canada, increasing government involvement with international ice hockey and concern with domestic issues, and lessening popularity of NHL-style ice hockey arose to threaten the power base of the NHL. League expansion in 1967 ushered in a groundswell of changes in the NHL which were accentuated and made irreversible with the establishment of the rival professional league, the WHA. Player bargaining power, cost increases and competition were three of the most significant changes wrought by the incursion of the WHA. Since the formation of the WHA the NHL has attempted various strategies but the WHA has continued in an uneasy existence which currently is not as threatening to the NHL as in the initial years of operation.

Concurrent with NHL expansion and the establishment of the WHA was the evolution of the standard of international ice hockey play to the level that other countries--most notably the USSR, but also Czechoslovakia and Sweden--felt that they had only one challenge left; to play and defeat Canadian professional players. The NHL did not appear to become interested in international play until 1972 when they accepted the challenge from the Soviet National Team. Prior to this occurrence, Canadian ice hockey had pursued an independent course with comparatively little involvement in international play. Canada last won the World Championships in 1961 and the Olympic Games in 1952; both of which may be seen as an indication of the low priority accorded international ice hockey. From 1963 to 1969 the Canadian National Team attempted to compete internationally but their efforts were handicapped by a number of impediments and the lack of a real commitment to success in international play by forces outside the team. The disbandment of the team in 1969 signalled a two-year Canadian withdrawal from all international competition and a concomitant isolation from the evolution of international ice hockey.

Canadian confidence in the quality of professional play was unquestioned prior to the first confrontation involving Canadian professional players and the Soviet National Team in 1972. Even though the Soviet, and also the Czechoslovakian, Swedish and Finnish National Teams had beaten top Canadian amateur club teams and the specially constructed National team (1963-1969) selected to represent Canada in Olympic and World Championship tournament competition; the international teams had not played the real strength in Canada--the professionals.[17]

The results of the 1972 USSR-Team Canada (NHL); 1974 USSR-Team Canada (WHA); 1972 and 1974 exhibition games in Sweden and Czechoslovakia involving the respective Team Canada teams; 1975-76 "Super Series" involving two reinforced Soviet club teams and various NHL club teams; and the 1976 Canada Cup Tournament have done much to dispel the Canadian-perpetuated fictions of the invincibility and immortality of Canadian professional players. So much was professional ice hockey humbled in the 1972 results that the shock waves reverberated to distress all reaches of Canadian society and especially the ice hockey public and officialdom. The controversy and introspection which was ushered in in the aftermath of the near-"national disaster" of 1972 has significantly influenced the Canadian ice hockey scene. The roles of the Federal Government, professional ice hockey interests, the CAHA and Hockey Canada, and minor ice hockey were all subject to the forces unleashed by the recognition that Canadian ice hockey was no longer invincible.

The Federal Government has moved in an uneven manner to become more involved in ice hockey and other sports. Although the Federal Government role was not very prominent in the 1976 Montreal Olympic Games, its role in the 1976 Canada Cup Tournament was much more prominent. The increasing bureaucratization, and the appointment of a Minister of Sport seem to point to an increasing acceptance of the need to be more concerned with the sporting scene domestically and internationally. International relations were strained in the 1972 and 1974 international games with Sweden and the USSR, because of the Canadian tactics and style of "violent" play, so this may be seen as an encouragement to bring sport, particularly the problem sport of ice hockey, into the sphere of government concern.[18] The domestic scene in Canadian ice hockey seems to reinforce the move towards a more active governmental role. Controversy has arisen from various issues and problems in Canadian ice hockey which seem to demand leadership from a source higher than and different in perspective from existing amateur and professional ice hockey bodies. Among the major concerns are the following: the overall need for leadership to resolve the power struggle for control of Canadian ice hockey; the priorities of and directions taken by the professional game and the influences these priorities and directions are presumed to be having upon the minor ice hockey system and players; the coordination of ice hockey and allied items such as leadership development and certification and domestic and international relations; and the resolution of other items of a smaller scale but which are important in the total perspective.[19]

The extent of involvement of the Federal Government remains to be determined. Thus far the main thrust seems to have been only towards international relations. Apparently very little other than general discussion and exploration on domestic issues has been done, with the major exception that the spheres of operation of the CAHA and Hockey Canada have been defined. Some funding has been provided for administration within the CAHA, and for special projects within Hockey Canada.

The provincial governments have been active mainly as funding agencies for the respective provincial and regional branches of the CAHA. The majority of the funding has been provided to the branches for leadership development and administration expenses. Recently, some provincial authorities--Alberta, Saskatchewan, Ontario--have become active in championing inquiries into the state and direction of minor ice hockey in their respective provinces.[20]

In other areas, provincial, city and municipal authorities have scrutinized local ice hockey situations and have drafted legislation and procedures designed to improve problematical situations and give direction to minor, amateur and in some cases, professional ice hockey practices. In at least the provinces of Ontario, British Columbia, Manitoba, and Alberta, the Attorneys General have initiated procedures to monitor ice hockey play with a view to launching legal action to curb violent play. Many localities have embarked upon programs which are designed to curb undesirable practices and/or initiate new principles and ideas in programming. There appears to be much experimentation and an awakening to programming which reflects a desire to implement egalitarian, humanistic and pedagogical principles.

The NHL has operated unchallenged at the pinnacle of the pyramid of the Canadian ice hockey system and has traditionally been in a position of dictating to the CAHA, and hence to all levels of amateur and minor ice hockey. The needs and pronouncements of a few NHL owners defined the Canadian ice hockey system until the pressures within professional ice hockey--including increased player bargaining power, formation of players' associations, increased costs, competition between leagues and with other sports for the entertainment dollar, lowering of standards of play and players with expansion, revised marketing target and product, reduced attendance and television viewing public, increasingly violent play, loss of status when compared with standards of play produced in international play, and the polemic on the nature, role and utility of professional sporting endeavour--and other, external pressures, namely: the diminished status of Canadian professional ice hockey in international competition (both in results and standards of play); increasing governmental (Federal, Provincial, Local) concern with the conduct and direction of ice hockey in Canada; and the general mood of discontent, introspection, innovation and social criticism which seems to have become a counter-culture movement in minor ice hockey in Canada--evolved to challenge the existing situation.

Minor ice hockey has become a meeting ground for two diametrically opposed viewpoints; one which filters down from the professional ranks, and the other which is a groundswell of social action from people and bodies concerned with rectifying the ills perceived in minor ice hockey. A view of the dilemma is provided by Robertson, who states:

> There is a gross misconception, perpetrated by the people who run minor hockey in this country, that the major reason we spend millions of dollars each year building rinks, organizing leagues and freezing our feet in snowbanks is to produce hockey players who will be good enough to make the NHL and keep beating the Russians.
>
> Yet statistics show that less than 1% of all players in amateur hockey will ever play the game professionally. Doesn't this suggest to you that we should tailor our amateur hockey programs to better serve that 99% who are just playing the game for the fun of it?[21]

The issue has also been viewed in terms of system-centered or participant-centered outcomes; elitist or egalitarian premises, organization and programming; and adult-centered or child-centered organization and programming.

Currently the role of minor ice hockey, particularly during the childhood time period, seems to be mainly organized along the traditional lines which were originally designed to meet NHL needs and interests; however, a small but steadily increasing number of localities have implemented programs which reflect in some degree the counter-culture or social action viewpoint.

> The influence exercised by the NHL over the Canadian minor hockey league system has resulted from a number of factors. It has resulted from the reverence for hockey in Canadian society, the prestigious stature of NHL players among the Canadian people, and regular exposure to "Hockey Night in Canada," which has contributed substantially to the reinforcement and perpetuation of the two prior factors.[22]

Vaz points out that the NHL "determines the style and content of the hockey that is played throughout the country, and youngsters who play hockey invariably learn to play National League hockey."[23]

It may be seen that attempts to implement change and alter the type of programming fly in the face of a formidable foe. Despite this, experimental and innovative programs for children have been implemented in diverse Canadian localities including Halifax, Fredericton, Ottawa, Winnipeg, Edmonton, Calgary, Windsor and other urban centers of smaller population where existing facilities have been under intense pressure from user demand.[24] These programs have been implemented with varying degrees of success and longevity. In some localities, such as Ottawa, Edmonton, Calgary and Windsor, the "new" programs were designed to replace the previous traditional type of programming, whereas in Halifax and Fredericton the design was to integrate both types of programming. More details of these programs will be outlined later in the paper; however, before leaving them it may be noted that, in most respects, they represent a new challenge to the status quo and the entrenchment of the traditional delivery system of talent for professional ice hockey.

As such, the new programs may wither or become emasculated in the same manner as have previous challenges from the educational establishment, from dissenting players and players who wished to form

Co

a players' association prior to 1967, and from those attempting to form a national team to represent Canada in international play. The long-standing chasm and intermittent enmity between professional ice hockey interests and educational authorities in Canada has been ameliorated by the infusion of American entrepreneurs, who expect an education and sport linkage, into professional ice hockey and by the need to draw upon talent developed in college ice hockey to fill professional rosters; in Canada, however, the traditional wariness, suspicion and separate, but unequal, lines of development prevail.

In 1967 a group of prominent Canadian businessmen established the Canadian Hockey Foundation to provide financial backing for the National Team and to provide scholarships at Canadian universities in order to establish a pool of talent for future teams. This group, the Canadian Hockey Foundation, was formally incorporated in 1969 as Hockey Canada, with representation from the Government, NHL, CAHA, universities and the public. Hockey Canada was chartered to finance and manage the National Team; to act as an umbrella group for liaison and coordination of all ice hockey interests; to provide ice hockey scholarships to Canadian universities; to implement leadership development programs for coaches; and to upgrade minor ice hockey in Canada. At the outset the aims and directions of Hockey Canada clashed with the vested interests of existing ice hockey groups. The Federal Government initially appeared to support Hockey Canada in the face of a power struggle with the NHL interests for top amateur players; and with the CAHA for overall control of international ice hockey, leadership development and minor ice hockey in Canada. The NHL and

CAHA very quickly tested their control of the talent supply and rendered Hockey Canada ineffective so the national team-in-being concept was killed in a matter of months after the incorporation of Hockey Canada. Federal Government support in the international ice hockey showdown was feeble, so the leadership development, scholarship programs and minor ice hockey development programs became Hockey Canada's main reason for being. Gradually these duties, with the exception of the scholarship program, were assumed by the CAHA, so that since 1973 the CAHA has been the body most involved with minor and amateur ice hockey in Canada. The relationship and operational spheres for the CAHA and Hockey Canada seem to be resolved with the CAHA clearly assuming the dominant role and Hockey Canada providing some complementary activity in the domestic, and mainly in the international sphere of ice hockey. Hockey Canada may remain a shell to be used if and when the Federal Government desires to become actively involved in the ice hockey system in Canada.

The Federal Government provides direct annually-negotiable grants or subsidies, office space and designated finances for an executive director and some administrative assistance to all the major sports governing bodies in Canada, including the CAHA. Requests for additional funding are negotiated with the Sport Federation of Canada which is housed in the Fitness and Amateur Sport Branch of the Department of National Health and Welfare. Special projects such as hosting major international competitions, and development funding are considered for special funding from Bill C-131, Fitness and Amateur

Sport Act. The Federal Government has not exerted direct control and influence over the CAHA although the establishment of study committees on amateur sport and ice hockey, and the increasing concern for international relations in sporting endeavour has impressed the Federal Government position on the CAHA and other sports governing bodies.

The CAHA is a voluntary association of members and individuals, designed to promote, foster and govern amateur ice hockey in Canada.[25] It comprises twelve branches having jurisdiction over specified divisions of Canada.[26] Each of the branches is sub-divided further to cover zones and/or centers of population which provide a suitable representation for the respective branches.[27] Juckes states the following in reference to the CAHA role in ice hockey:

> The Association endeavors to give every Canadian an opportunity to participate in the sport; and to assist him in developing his skills and enjoyment by providing (1) uniform rules and regulations, (2) national and provincial competition, (3) a program of development and training, (4) and an opportunity to represent Canada in various levels of international hockey competition.[28]

The organization of the CAHA, which serves as a model for branch organizations, is shown in Illustration 5.1. Two of the councils, Minor Hockey and Hockey Development, are most directly related to the thesis topic and bear need for more elaboration. The Minor Hockey Council is charged with the responsibility for the development and promotion of minor ice hockey, rules and regulations, tournaments and championships and other matters concerning minor ice hockey in Canada. Representation is made up of the CAHA Vice-President for Minor Hockey and elected members representing the various branches.

The Minor Council, along with the other councils and committees, meets at least twice annually to conduct the business of minor ice hockey. The Hockey Development Council has the direct charge to formulate and recommend hockey development programs. In the short history of this council (since 1974) leadership development programs for coaches and referees have been the main priorities. Publications and exemplary programs aimed towards skill development and improvement of existing programs have also been major thrusts.[30] Seven outside bodies in addition to persons occupying various points of intervention within the CAHA structure are represented on the Hockey Development Council, so a broad perspective is provided for developing new programs and materials.[31]

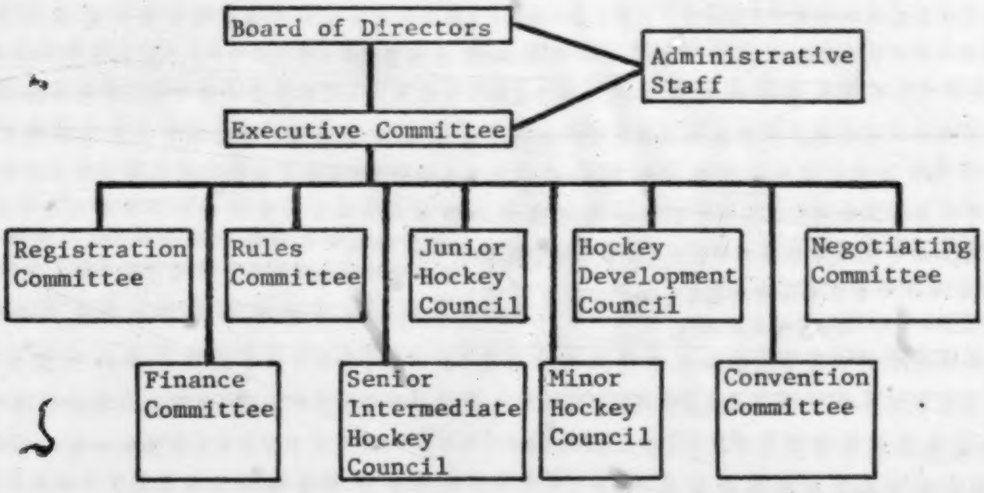

Board of Directors
Administrative Staff
Executive Committee
Registration Committee
Rules Committee
Junior Hockey Council
Hockey Development Council
Negotiating Committee
Finance Committee
Senior Intermediate Hockey Council
Minor Hockey Council
Convention Committee

Illustration 5.1

Organizational Structure of the Canadian Amateur Hockey Association[29]

Much of the funding for the operation of programs, sponsorship of special projects, publication of materials and so on is generated from commercial or private enterprise sponsors. Even though the Federal Government provides a substantial grant towards the operating expenses of the CAHA, and the CAHA itself realizes monies from registration and membership fees paid by the participants, such funds fall far short of the amount needed to finance programs, projects and publications such as those being developed by the Hockey Development Council. Commercial or private enterprise sponsorship, Provincial Government funding and special fund-raising promotions are actively pursued by CAHA officials in order to finance the increasing number of programs and services.[32] A steadily-increasing amount of funding is coming from commercial and industrial sponsors who wish to market their product or services, or who wish to gain favorable public relations. Sponsorship of sport and sport-related projects appears to be an effective marketing technique, particularly in view of the increasing restrictions being placed upon advertising certain products (alcoholic beverages, cigarettes, drugs).[33] Commercial sponsorship enters the Canadian ice hockey system in numerous ways and at numerous levels besides CAHA programming. Team ownership or sponsorship; project and program sponsorship; sponsorship of materials, aids, supplies; and sponsorship of meetings, competitions, tournaments and so on are examples of the range of involvement from commercial sponsorship.[34] When all the thrusts are catalogued it may be seen that there is a significant linkage of private enterprise and ice hockey in Canada.

In each locality, officials from community groups and/or athletic clubs solicit assistance from private enterprise and municipal (and provincial) authorities in order to meet their program needs and plans. A great variety of fund-raising drives are conducted using raffles, sale of commodities or services, collection of recyclable materials or anything which will generate funds. Players, parents and other volunteers, especially coaches, team managers, and community officials log considerable time and effort in their attempts to raise money. It is estimated that there are 55,000 volunteer coaches and 55,000 volunteer administrators working in all levels of minor and amateur ice hockey in Canada.[35]

Most of the coaches, managers and other officials assume these voluntary capacities when, or shortly after, their children start playing ice hockey, and continue devoting their time and energy for varying lengths of time, but normally only for the duration, or a portion thereof, of the time that their offspring remain playing. CAHA officials recognize this pattern and have attempted to gear Levels 1 and 2 of the National Coaches' Certification Program (N.C.C.P.) to meet the needs of these short-term volunteers.[36] The majority of coaches and officials working with children are presumed to be parents who were at one time or another drafted or otherwise enticed to volunteer to look after a house league or representative team. The mobility pattern for coaches, managers and other officials who are keen, normally seems to be towards working with the older age groups and with the higher categories of play.[37] In many communities, however, there are many coaches who stay in coaching and choose to work at the younger levels and with the lower categories of play. For those who wish to stay in the ice hockey system and upgrade their qualifications, the CAHA offers Levels 3, 4 and 5 of the National Coaches' Certification Program.[38] In some instances coaches may have additional qualifications, such as a degree from a university or college with a specialization in physical education or education. Generally speaking, however, formal qualifications such as degrees are lacking.

The norm and the foundation for leadership in Canadian ice hockey seems to be built upon the experience of a common heritage in ice hockey. Coaches at all levels, including the NHL and WHA are former players who have the interest or fall into circumstances which encourage them to take up coaching. Increasingly, however, local associations and community groups are requiring their coaches to take the National Coaches' Certification Program courses or locally-organized coaching clinics as a prerequisite to coaching. The thrust of the Hockey Development Council programs is toward providing information and indoctrination which will bring about what is perceived to be a needed change in minor ice hockey leadership.

> While all of the objectives of the Association are important, to many CAHA members the major priority of the association today is more and better development programs in order to produce better players, better coaches, better referees--and above all better Canadians.[39]

There appears to be considerable support inside and outside minor ice hockey circles for implementing changes and anticipated improvements in minor ice hockey coaching practices and program organization, so increasing degrees of compulsion seem to be entertained in an attempt to hasten improvements such as an upgrading of coaching and leadership practices in minor ice hockey. Even though the coaches and other leaders are volunteers, and even though there seems to be resistance in some entrenched quarters, the draft of minor ice hockey coaches into coaching certification programs seems to be progressing.

In order to place the whole discussion on coaching in perspective it should be noted that in many localities there frequently appears to be such a shortage of leadership that recruiting anyone, regardless of qualifications, is a must in order to make programs viable. The compulsion applied towards voluntary leaders is presumably only prevalent where volunteers actively seek out the coaching position or where the incumbents can be convinced of the desirability of attending coaching clinics and certification programs.

The clash between the traditional professionally-oriented viewpoint and the reformist social action viewpoint which was highlighted in connection with minor ice hockey earlier, may be seen in the orientation which leaders provide to their programs and in the type of programs with which they become associated. The role model and orientation for the coach in Canadian ice hockey has been provided by the NHL and the heritage of "coaching as one was coached." The Hockey Development Council programs attempt to change the role model and orientation towards one which is compatible with emphasis upon program outcomes and participant outcomes such as enjoyment, fitness, skill improvement and other learning experiences including sportsmanship, attitudes and values.[40] The success of the leadership development program must ultimately be assessed in terms of whether the ideas and orientation of the CAHA-sponsored programs are implemented in practice. At this time the preliminary results seem encouraging to CAHA officials but the overall assessment is difficult to make in light of the magnitude of the whole Canadian ice hockey system. In 1975-76, 18,919 were reported to have taken one or more of the five levels of the National Coaches' Certification Program.[41] In total it is optimistically estimated that there may have been as many as one-third of all volunteer coaches in Canada who have been participants in the CAHA leadership development programs and the antecedent Hockey Canada leadership development programs since 1971.[42] Table 5.1 presents a summary of the CAHA branch registration totals for 1974-75 and 1975-76. In addition to the CAHA figures an estimated 100,000 to 200,000 other participants are involved in episodic or casual ice hockey play at the various levels--many in children's ice hockey before registration or affiliation with local or provincial ice hockey governing bodies occurs. Illustration 5.2 presents a graphic representation of the Canadian ice hockey system.

Table 5.1 and Illustration 5.2 indicate the pyramidal nature of the Canadian ice hockey system wherein there is a broad base of participation which progressively narrows to leave very few participants in organized ice hockey at the apex of the pyramid. McDonald's[44] statement that the majority of ice hockey players are between eight and fourteen years is in agreement with these representations and Fisher's comment that,

Table 5.1

Canadian Amateur Hockey Association
Branch Registration of Players
for 1974-75 and 1975-76 Seasons[43]

Divisions of Play	Players Affiliated but not on CAHA Registration Certificates		Players on CAHA Registration Certificates	
	1974-75	1975-76	1974-75	1975-76
Senior	-	36	359	624
Intermediate	11,083	8,801	15,215	17,875
Major Junior "A" and Junior "A"	-	-	2,640	2,450
Junior (others)	1,478	1,317	9,486	9,011
Juvenile	13,486	13,496	15,120	16,987
Midget	37,592	35,480	48,733	50,489
Bantam	61,190	58,858	62,301	60,356
Pee-Wee & Below	155,260	159,450	125,940	192,737
Others	21,925	14,821	870	4,469
Totals	302,014	292,259	280,664	291,998

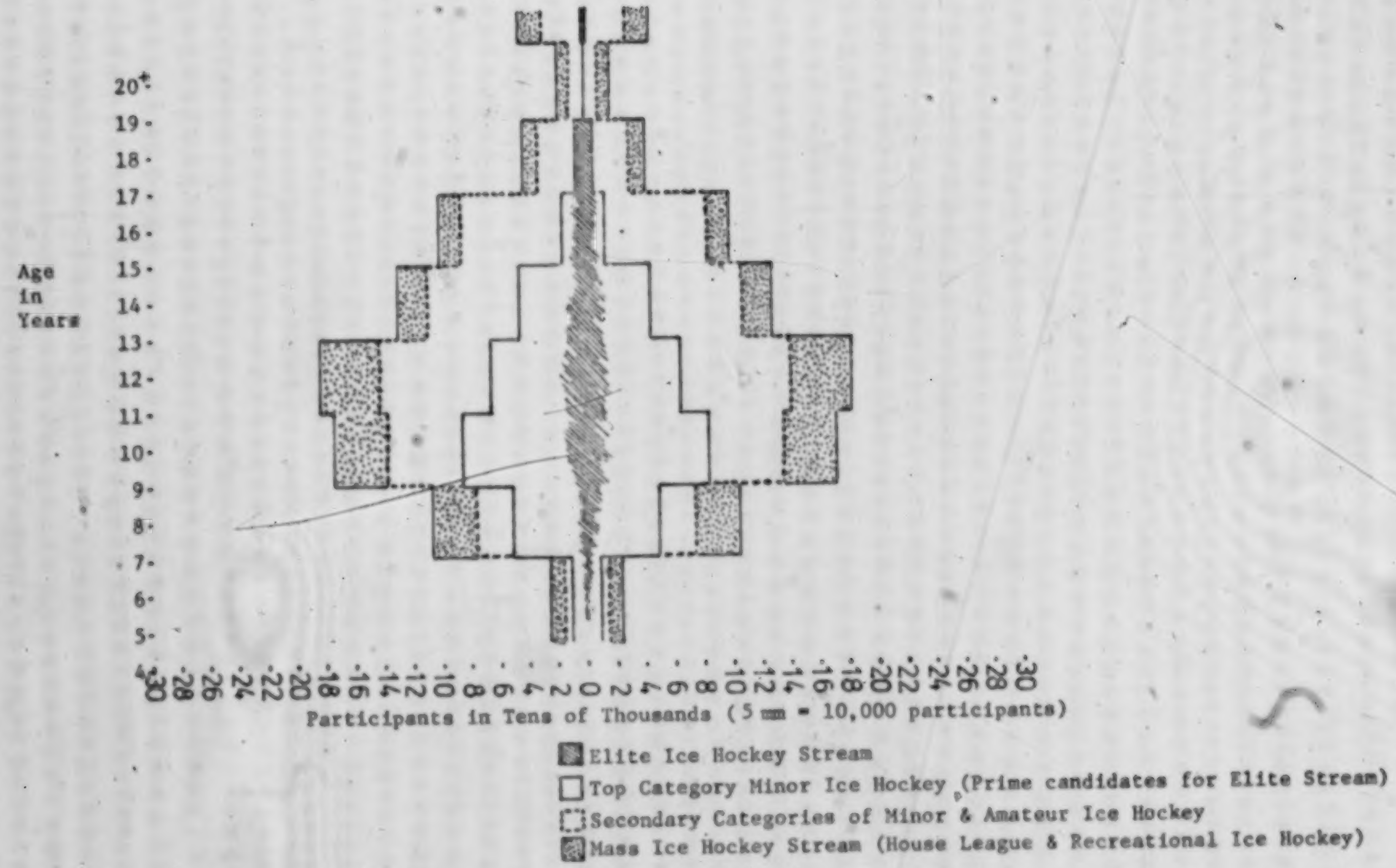


Illustration 5.2

Estimated Profile of Canadian Ice Hockey System[46]

> The amount of organized play in Canada between eight and fourteen years of age, amounts to a virtual industry, but by the time the kid is sixteen organization drops to a trickle. We have crystallized a kind of toy game that we want our kids to play: you either make it by sixteen or you're through.[45]

restates this theme.

In reality it seems that the selection process commences from a boy's first entrance into ice hockey. The ice hockey system in Canada exists at the early age divisions as a two-stream arrangement which progressively evolves, through a process of natural selection of requisite qualities for professional ice hockey, into a single stream which is the quality control mechanism towards professional play.

The mass ice hockey stream normally seems to be designated by the term, house league, although in some localities it receives another special name or classification. House leagues are prevalent in the divisions of ice hockey play within childhood and the early years of youth up to age fourteen. Beginning and novice players, and culled or rejected players from the better classifications of the particular divisions of play (for example; "A", "B", "All-Star", or "Representative [Rep]" classifications of Peanut, Squirt, Atom, Tyke, Tom Thumb, Tiny Mite, Pee Wee or Bantam divisions of play) normally are the participants in the house league classification, regardless of the division of play.

Players may move from the house league classification when they exhibit the entry requisites for any higher classification(s) of play in their division, or the next higher division. Mobility appears to be dependent upon local circumstances, but it is theoretically possible at any time during the ice hockey season. The selection process is based upon a number of qualities which are usually individually determined by the coach in a given situation. Among these qualities applied in the selection process the following appear typically: technical skill in skating, puck control (stickhandling, passing, pass receiving, and shooting), checking, goaltending; attitude, and in particular qualities such as desire, determination, aggressiveness, seriousness; anticipated development; ability in situational play, team play or game play; physical attributes; and local and individual circumstances including such things as community pressures, interpersonal dynamics, particular needs and so on.[47]

Players who meet the requisites for play at classifications other than house leagues presumably are closest to the elite ice hockey stream when they are playing in the best classification within a particular division of play. Generally the designations, A, AA, All-Star, Representative, or in some instances B or BB, denote the top classifications operating within a given locality. Players who are playing in a second or lower classification, other than house league, may be categorized as being closer to either the elite or the mass stream depending upon the local situation, the classification of play, the age division of play and the emphasis (assessed in terms of number of games and practices and so on) placed upon the particular classification. The foregoing determinants may be highlighted with the following discussion. In some communities the difference in the quality and quantity of play between two classifications may be slight whereas in other localities it is much more significant, so the stream placement may be determined accordingly. As players move up the ice hockey system to higher age divisions the classification tends to become more definitive and more restrictive. Players playing Tiny Mite B may normally be seen to be within or closer to the elite ice hockey stream than players in Midget B, Juvenile B or Junior B classifications which are in fact outside the elite ice hockey stream. The nature of the pyramid depicting Canadian ice hockey as an activity for the young and the talented (according to NHL standards) provides an overall indication of the streaming which quickly constricts to leave only the elite ice hockey stream as the meaningful or important stream in Canadian ice hockey. Table 5.2 outlines the divisions of play within the Canadian ice hockey system.

Table 5.2

Organization of Competition in the Canadian Ice Hockey System[48]

Category	Age Classification
Professional	-open to drafted and over-age junior players
Senior A & B	-open to players of all ages
Intermediate A,B,C,D, & Commercial	
Major Junior A - Junior A,B, BB, & C	-under 21 years of age on December 31 in the season in which he wishes to compete
Juvenile AA,A,BB,B & C	-under 19 years of age "
Midget AA,A,BB,B,C & D	-under 17 years of age "
Bantam AA,A,BB,B,C & D	-under 15 years of age "
Pee Wee A,BB,B,C & D	-under 13 years of age "
Mite, et al.; A,B,C & D	-under 11 years of age "
Tyke, et al.; A,B & C	-under 9 years of age "
Beginner, et al.; A & B	-under 7 years of age "

The yearly schedule for Canadian ice hockey varies according to the category of play and the exigencies of local situations. Table 5.3 outlines the seasonal schedule for professional ice hockey which tends to be the model for Junior professional and the top classifications of other older age divisions of ice hockey play. Table 5.4 outlines the seasonal schedule for minor ice hockey for children.

Table 5.3

Seasonal Schedule for Professional Ice Hockey and Other Top Classifications in Canada[49]

Time Period	Nature of Involvement and Activity	
September 7-October 3	Pre-Season	- Two weeks conditioning skating and scrimmage for team selection at try-out camps. Scattered use of off-ice conditioning programs; two weeks of exhibition games.
October 4-May 15	Active Season	- League games and play-off games. Complementary practices.
May 16 - September 1	Off Season	- Individual has no obligations; some involvement with supervision of summer ice hockey schools; some players pursue off-season training regimen.

Table 5.4

Seasonal Schedule for Minor Ice Hockey for Children in Canada[50]

Time Period	Nature of Involvement and Activity	
October 1 (15) - November 1 (15)	Pre-Season	- Team selection; practices (emphasis upon conditioning skating, basic skill techniques, and preparation for game play); exhibition games.
November 1 (15) - March 15 (31)	Active Season	- League games and play-off games; complementary and supplementary practice sessions.
March 15 (31) - October 1 (15)	Off Season	- Participation in other sports. No obligation to ice hockey; some children attend summer ice hockey schools.

ELITE ICE HOCKEY STREAM

> It is a fact that Allstar teams (particularly Allstar "A" teams) constitute the elite stratum of the Minor Hockey Leagues; they are better coached, they are given more ice time, receive more publicity and are more carefully evaluated and scouted than are players on House League teams.[51]

The advantages outlined in the foregoing have been the basis for the delivery system of players into the talent pool for professional ice hockey. These advantages have also served as rallying points for the social action forces wishing to eliminate such inequities and alter the structure, programming and philosophy of minor ice hockey.

Although all-star teams may be seen to constitute the elite ice hockey stream, participants who are not on all-star teams are not excluded from becoming members of these teams at a future date.

Try-outs for the top teams are held annually and if a boy shows well he may advance from any other classification of ice hockey. The elite ice hockey stream becomes progressively more difficult to penetrate in the older age divisions because of fewer available playing opportunities and more competition for places. By the time a player is playing Bantam and Midget it is usually more important that he be playing the top classification of play in order to be visible for selection to junior professional ice hockey.

A typical organization for ice hockey in a locality and an ideal progression through the elite ice hockey stream is outlined in Vaz's treatise which follows.

> The Minor Hockey League under study consisted of 6 team levels; Tykes (7-9 years), Novice (9-11 years), Pee Wee (11-13 years), Bantam (13-14 years), Midget (15-16 years) and the Juvenile Level (over 17 years). The League is divided into two talent streams, (a) House League teams, and (b) Allstar teams. Allstar teams include the top players in the Minor Hockey League in the city. Usually there are three Allstar teams ("A", "B" and "C") per level; at the highest level (Midget) there is usually one, sometimes two, Allstar units. A player may be selected for an Allstar team at any point during his stay in the league. Progression through the league on an Allstar "A" or "B" team may lead ultimately to the Midget Allstar "A" team. From here players are sometimes drafted into the Junior professional "A" League or invited to play for a Junior professional "B" or "C" team. After one or more years at this level, players may be drafted by one of the National League teams.[52]

The precise nomenclature for age divisions and play classifications varies considerably across Canada and reflects the grass roots evolution of children's ice hockey wherein localities evolve their own programming and solutions without dictation of centrally-planned, organized and administered solutions. Table 5.5 outlines a typical structure for a large community district and a small community district ice hockey program.

Table 5.5

Structure of Typical Community-Sponsored Ice Hockey Programs in Calgary[53]

Age Division	Large Community District Play Classification/Number of Teams	Small Community District Play Classification/Number of Teams
Beginner		
Tyke	House League - 4 teams Little Richard League - 1 team	
Tiny Mite	House League - 4 teams Tiny Mite C - 2 teams Tiny Mite BB - 1 team	Tiny Mite C - 1 team Tiny Mite BB - 1 team
Pee Wee	House League - 3 teams Pee Wee C - 3 teams Pee Wee BB - 1 team	Pee Wee BB - 1 team
Bantam	House League - 2 teams Bantam C - 2 teams Bantam BB - 1 team	Bantam BB - 1 team
Midget	Midget C - 2 teams Midget BB - 1 team	Midget BB - 1 team
Juvenile	Juvenile C - 1 team Juvenile BB - 1 team	

In addition to the community-sponsored programming there is a city-wide competition organized by the Minor Hockey Association of Calgary which caters to the elite ice hockey players in the Bantam, Midget and Juvenile (and Junior B) age divisions. In a city with a population of 450,000 there were, in 1975-76, twelve Bantam AA, eight Midget AA and four Juvenile AA teams from the four geographical quadrants of the city. Each quadrant has an association which generates funds to support an elitist type of program with six teams (three Bantam AA, two Midget AA and one Juvenile AA team). To be eligible for play with one of these top-ranked classifications of play the participant must live in the respective quadrant of the city. Other centers of population seem to have roughly the same structure, organization and geographical bases of competition, with the notable exception of localities such as Toronto that have a free-market selection of players and arrangements for competition. The situation in rural localities varies considerably and seems to be determined by a number of factors, including structure and population of the locality, interest of leaders and participants, access to reliable facilities, and the structure and nature of programming in neighboring localities. Rural localities tend to compete in leagues which are within the highest appropriate play classification. It appears that the rural areas are undergoing the same developments as in the larger centers of population and that the traditional type of programming for the selected few predominates. Facilities seem to be more accessible in most rural areas than in the larger centers of population so support of both elite and mass stream programs seems feasible.

Generally speaking, it appears that the larger the locality, the more complex the classification system and greater the range of programming will be. The range of programming may be seen as an attempt to satisfy the needs of all participants interested in playing ice hockey. Stated in ideal terms, the objective seems to be one of establishing a classification suitable for each ability and interest level among the participants. Although the two talent streams may be identified as early as the Tyke age division the gap between the elite stream and the mass streams is not as significant as it becomes in the older age divisions, especially Midget. The inequities accentuated by priorities, resources and programming seem to be more prevalent in the older age divisions, although the emphasis within some children's programs places them in a disparate position. An illustration of this disproportionate amount of artificial ice time allocation for the elite program is provided in Edmonton where in 1975-76 the AA program (in theory, more developmental oriented) was allocated an average of 52.47 hours of ice time per AA team (40 AA teams - Midget through Juvenile age divisions); whereas in the BB program (in theory, more recreational oriented) an average of 13.55 hours of ice time was allotted for each BB team (701 BB teams - Tiny Mite through Junior age divisions).[54] The selection process culls out the relatively untalented and unsuitable candidates in a progressive manner and relegates the rejects to the lower classifications of each age division. While this process may be traumatic for children and youth up to age fourteen years it is normally not as vital and significant as being rejected at the Bantam and Midget age divisions, mainly because the younger players have alternatives including lower classifications of play in Tyke, Mite, Pee Wee and Bantam (in some localities) from which they may work back into the elite stream.[55] For many Bantam and nearly all Midget-aged players, rejection tends to be more final and definitive in view of the lack of viable alternatives. The finality of the selection process is presumed to be exemplified in Illustration 5.1 through the significant drop in participation among fourteen year-old Bantams and Midget-aged ice hockey players. For all intents and purposes the majority of players involved in all categories of Juvenile and Junior (other than Major Junior A and some Junior A) are outside the elite ice hockey stream.

Considering the foregoing it is, in the opinion of the writer, difficult to make a definitive statement establishing rigid and impermeable boundaries between classifications in the age divisions. It seems certain that there are some significant disparities in the resources, priorities and interest provided to teams in the various classifications of play, which are in turn heightened by the relatively extreme emphasis given to teams and programs in certain localities; at the younger age divisions, however, these disparities apparently are not insurmountable and prohibitive to the development of ice hockey players. The clamour created by reformist viewpoints seems to have contributed towards making the classifications within the children's age divisions relatively less disparate than those in youth ice hockey. It would seem that the comparatively recent turmoil in Canadian ice hockey (since 1972) has allowed reformist causes to make significant inroads into the previous, essentially single-streamed system. There appears to be continuing agitation for more change towards creation of a more egalitarian situation for all interested participants; however, impediments in the form of resistance from the embedded power structure, pressure on existing facilities, and shortage of trained (and especially sympathetic reformist-type) leaders may work to slow down what has thus far been a rapid rate of change in Canadian ice hockey for children.

In some respects it may be more advantageous to view the dichotomy between elite and mass ice hockey in terms of traditional and reformist ice hockey programming because of the recent developments coursing through the Canadian ice hockey system.

The ideal progression towards the dream of playing professionally would involve a player playing well at all the top classifications of the various age divisions prior to being drafted for a professional team. When a boy enters ice hockey he is cumulatively socialized and professionalized with this progression and dream held up to him as both a task and a motivational device. The socialization and professionalization processes surrounding ice hockey in Canada appear to be powerful constraints upon the developing ice hockey player. Two fundamental aspects of these processes are pointed out by Nixon.

> In Canadian society, there is a tremendous pressure upon young males to compete in amateur hockey; and as young boys, Canadian males learn that this competition is to be approached with great seriousness and dedication.[56]

The seriousness and dedication in the professionalization process may also be seen in Vaz's statement that:

> Despite the ideology of the Minor Hockey League (with its emphasis upon sportsmanship and fair play, good citizenship, loyalty and the development of 'moral character') it is no longer possible to conceal the fact that youngsters who play organized hockey are engaged in worklife activity, and it is a myth to believe that their sole motivation is the pursuit of pleasure. As a top executive of one league said, " . . . remember that these guys are pretty serious about being Allstar. They are not there to fool around."[57]

Earlier in the chapter mention was made of the omnipresence and persuasiveness of the NHL fiction. To it and the advantages outlined previously may be added other material and non-material reinforcements such as commercial sponsorship, travel, tournaments, awards, status, recognition and so on. All these reinforcements provide, at one level, the motivation for the participant in elite ice hockey, and at another level, the rationale for the elite ice hockey system in Canada.

Boys may enter competitive situations in ice hockey at a very young age. A trend towards earlier competition seems to parallel a downward extension of adult involvement in all children's sport. Tutko and Bruns[58] document this trend in a number of sports including track and field, minibike racing, baton twirling, football, basketball, swimming and so on, in addition to ice hockey leagues enlisting four year-olds. They state that, "We organize children's leagues, give them uniforms, hand out trophies, set up play-offs and All-Star teams, send them to 'bowl' games, and encourage them to compete at earlier and earlier ages."[59]

Some communities operate ice hockey programs for children six years of age and younger (the beginner division), although programming does not commence in earnest in most communities until children reach the Tyke age division. Usually the Tyke age division embraces six year-olds and sometimes even five year-olds, so most communities commence programming at this level rather than the earlier beginner age division. The pressure to program beginners would seem to arise from parents whose children have been skating and playing shinny from earlier ages.

The nature and extent of programming apparently reflects the philosophy of the leaders, who are normally keenly-interested parents, and the local conditions such as ice availability in a given community.

The relatively few communities that organize Beginner ice hockey appear to conduct programs of two main types--intra-community programming which involves house-league and perhaps inter-community game play, and intra-community programming which involves skill-technique development in addition to scrimmage or shinny game play. The first type may be viewed as more in line with the elite stream model because of its focus upon game play. This is particularly the case in instances where game play is scheduled on an inter-community basis with another interested community or cluster of communities. Saturday morning games of one hour on outdoor ice seem to be the norm regardless of whether they are intra-community or inter-community. The games usually employ the whole ice surface with regular CAHA rules, although a few programs, particularly those stressing only intra-community play, employ one-half the ice surface, so that two cross-ice games may be played. Typically, a few skating and shooting drills precede the game play in the intra-community games. The role of the parents seems quite significant in defining the milieu of the programs.

The second and much less-frequent type of Beginners' program involves a combination skill-technique development and games session. Typically, the hour-long session involves from thirty to forty minutes' concentration on development of skating and puck control skills, with the remaining twenty to thirty minutes in cross-ice shinny and some novelty challenges and games. A variety of modified rules and arrangements on ice are employed, including: rotation of positions or no use of positions; target or empty goal rather than goaltender; two or three simultaneous cross-ice games; continuous play without regard for icing, off side, or in some instances, face-offs after goal scoring; and not recording scoring.

The total extent and nature of Beginner age division ice hockey play is difficult to determine mainly because no registration or affiliation of six-and-under teams is completed at the local association or CAHA branch level. Apparently programs for children under six have not received sanction from official groups such as municipal recreation or leisure service authorities or minor ice hockey authorities. In the city of Calgary, for instance, organization of Beginner ice hockey by partisans is not encouraged under the framework of the Calgary Minor Hockey Association which is the body responsible for all minor ice hockey in the city. Indoor ice is not provided for Beginner programs in Calgary or in a number of other centers so zealous parents operate through outdoor community-based facilities and/or through rental of indoor facilities in developing their programming. The extent of programming seems to vary greatly, but reports persist of the great number of games which some teams play during the season. Reports from Ontario indicate that upwards of seventy games have been played by children aged six years and younger, so it seems clear that some programs receive a great deal of emphasis and become visible as targets for concern about the direction this level of minor ice hockey seems to represent.[60]

Programming for Tyke ice hockey is more common than programming for Beginners but it is also limited by the official position of municipal and minor ice hockey authorities who give priority to older children and youth in the scheduling of indoor facilities. Despite the official attempts to deter Tyke ice hockey, a considerable number of youngsters aged five through eight years participate in Tyke ice hockey programs across Canada. In Calgary fifteen per cent of participants in 1975-76 played Tiny Tyke ice hockey.[61] Competition in exhibition games and tournaments generally is pursued in the absence of scheduled league games. In many widely-separated geographical locations a very extensive game schedule involving in excess of seventy, eight or ninety games has been reported.[62] In addition, numerous practice sessions were undertaken so an extensive time commitment occurred during the season.

Some communities operate a house league (intra-community games) program only; others operate a combined intra- and inter-community games schedule; whereas still others, ostensibly the majority, operate an inter-community schedule of varying extent. Some of the latter communities, which sponsor representative or all-star teams are involved in a league schedule whereas other communities organize inter-community competition which is designed as a culmination event or play-off zenith for the season. Local conditions and leadership interest appear to produce a range in the type and extent of programming, which creates many variations. In all instances it appears that a fairly extensive schedule of exhibition games and tournaments is pursued by Tyke players who are on representative or all-star teams, while a scaled-down schedule is pursued by other Tyke teams.

Two ideal-types of programming for Tykes--with a continuum of intervening variation--may be located in the Canadian ice hockey system. The predominant type of programming appears to involve inter-community or inter-locality game play which may be extensive, such as that involving all-star teams; or scanty, such as in a short league followed by a seasonal culmination or limited play-off schedule. The game-based programs generally appear to involve at least a minimal number of training sessions. Those community teams playing many games (thirty and over) do not usually have an equal number of practices. Programs having between ten and twenty games appear to have approximately a like number of practice sessions.[63] The nature and quality of these practices and those in the second type, the intra-community program, seemed to vary in accordance with the quality and philosophy of the leaders. Some coaches, in both inter-community and intra-community programs, mentioned the use of curriculum and visual aids as guides for the content of their practices. There seemed to be a reasonable correlation, in the subjective opinion of the writer, between recent training and conduct of programs which featured participant outcomes through a higher activity ratio and more effective time and ice utilization.

Within the other programming type for Tykes, the intra-community program (which is generally designated as house league) a range of programming also occurs. Generally the designation, house league, implies the lowest classification within an age division. The participants are generally not considered to be good enough or suitable for all-star or rep. teams. In most communities house league players have tried out for rep. teams but have not been successful. Concomitant with the lower classification is normally a lower priority for obtaining the resources of leadership, facilities, financial support and interest. In many localities the reformist point-of-view has attempted to counteract the situation by offering an alternative form of programming based upon participant outcomes in skill development, but the low priorization appears to be predominant in most localities. So long as the program is intra-community it is seen as house league. It would appear that league schedules contribute towards pressuring officials for ice booking. House league programs are generally at the mercy of climatic conditions and accessibility to indoor ice. Most house league programming at all age divisions is done on outdoor natural ice unless a community or locality has its own indoor ice which is scheduled to include house league programs. The intra-community program may involve primarily house league game play, with or without some attention given to skill-technique practice; or it may involve (at the other end of the continuum) concentration upon the basic skill-techniques (skating and puck-control) in addition to loosely-organized play. Those intra-community programs based on games usually involve at least a few drills in skating and puck control but they are incidental to concentration on game play readiness.

A typical session concerned with skill-technique development was designed to involve skating tasks, puck control tasks, scrimmage or shinny and novelty games or challenges. In one exemplary intra-community program the boys were provided with skill instruction and practice in skating appropriate to their level (40-50 per cent of the session time, which included novelty challenges and games, and a variety of tasks); skill instruction and practice in puck control (10-30 per cent of the session time, which included combination work with skating, novelty challenges and games); cross-ice shinny games with target or empty goal, rather than goaltender (30-50 per cent of the session time); and novelty games, relays, challenges and so on (10-20 per cent of the session time).[64] Parents in many of the programs assisted on ice so that the child-adult ratio was in the order of five to eight children per adult. Normally one coach directed the practice while employing the parents in roles providing individual attention, drill assistant roles and in some instances as group leaders or station managers. In the exemplary program cited previously two instructors organized their respective groups and coordinated their ice use when they desired to use more than one-half the ice surface. Drills involving a high activity ratio were employed ostensibly to good advantage in skill-technique practice. In other Tyke programs the training sessions observed did not appear to use the ice time or activity factors in a manner conducive to maximum participant benefit.

The Mite and Pee Wee ice hockey age divisions also reflect the traditional and reformist types of programs and many of the features outlines for Beginner and Tyke ice hockey. A composite viewpoint on the program content of ice training sessions is presented in Table 5.6. It should be borne in mind that this table presents the range of program content on the continuum between two ideal-types of programming, the traditional viewpoint and the reformist viewpoint; and further that the

Table 5.6

Program Content for Ice Training for Minor Ice Hockey for Children in Canada[65]

Age Division	Program Content
Beginner (Aged 4-6)	-Drills (and progressions where skill-technique teaching is emphasized) for basics of skating (mainly forward skating, braking and manoeuvering). -Drills (and progressions) for basics of puck control skill-techniques (mainly stick-handling and passing-shooting). -Game play (scrimmage, shinny, and/or regulation play depending upon program emphasis). -Novelty games, contests, challenges and so on.
Tyke (Aged 6[5]-8)	-Drills (and progressions where skill-technique teaching is emphasized) for basics of skating (mainly forward skating, braking, turning; some backward skating and related "mohawk" turning and stopping). -Drills (and progressions as noted above) for puck control (mainly stickhandling, passing and shooting). -Combined skating and puck control drills. -Game play (scrimmage, shinny, and/or regulation game depending upon program emphasis). -Some programs have game situational play (mainly 1 on 1 and 3 on 2 situations; with the odd program working on power play and shorthanded play for games). -Novelty games, contests, challenges and so on.
Mite (Aged 8-10)	-Drills (and progressions as noted) for basics of skating (both forward and backward skating with all components covered in better programs). -Drills (and progressions as noted) for basics of puck control (stickhandling, passing, pass receiving, shooting). -Combination drills for skating and puck control skill-techniques. -Some drills (and progressions as noted) for checking. -Some game situational play (including 1 on 1, 2 on 1, 3 on 2, power play and shorthanded play) and team play. -Game play (scrimmage, regulation game, and shinny depending upon program emphasis). -Novelty games and contests.
Pee Wee (Aged 10-12)	-Repetition of many of the same skating, puck control and checking drills as covered in other age divisions. -Combination drills for aforementioned skill-techniques. -Situational, positional and team play drills. -Game play (scrimmage and regulation game play).

material should be considered within the context of the relevant discussion considered in this paper.

The specific content presented by Tiny Mite and Pee Wee coaches appears to be related, in a number of cases, to the National Coaches Certification Program material and other Canadian coaching aids from the CAHA and other sponsoring interests.[66] These materials present a more complete picture of the curriculum aids which serve in place of a single curriculum guide. In Calgary thirty-six of one-hundred and eight Tiny Mite and Pee Wee coaches used dryland training in their programs in 1975-76.[67] Most coaches employed only a few sessions (one to six), while five coaches used twelve or more sessions to supplement or complement on-ice practice sessions. The content of these sessions included two types of material. Many coaches used a program including calisthenics or exercises, novelty games, contests, running and other fitness-inducing activities at selected times during the season, while other coaches used ball hockey and floor hockey to teach concepts of play as well as to improve the fitness levels of their players. In addition some coaches used "chalktalk" sessions to improve their team's play. Use of films, video-tape playback, attendance at exemplary live games, team discussions, guest speakers and so on were used in the chalktalk sessions to achieve particular ends.

In the pre-season time period the on-ice practices for both the Tiny Mite and Pee Wee age divisions stressed skating (including conditioning skating) and puck control skills. Much less attention seemed to be given to other possibilities for inclusion in practice sessions, such as checking skills, team play drills, situational play drills, scrimmage and special game situations.

Table 5.7 presents the content of practice sessions during the season for Tiny Mite-aged players, and Table 5.8 presents similar content for Pee Wee practice sessions. Observations of Tiny Mite and Pee Wee practice sessions by the writer during the last two years tend to corroborate the questionnaire responses reported in these two tables. An attempt has been made to present the material in unsophisticated "statistics for the layman" terms so that tendencies in practice content may be gleaned by the reader. Basically, the Tables attempt to communicate that, for instance: all fifty-one Tiny Mite coaches who responded to this section of the survey included skating skill practice in their on-ice training sessions; on the average 23.88 per cent of total practice time presumably was given over to practice of skating skills; and that the percentage of time allotted to skating skill practice by the respondents ranged from five to seventy-five per cent of the typical practice.

The survey results indicate that skating and puck control appear most typically and receive a significant portion of the time in both Tiny Mite and Pee Wee practices. On the other end of the scale, practice of special game situations, checking skills and conditioning skating are least-frequently programmed into the typical practice. Observation of practice sessions by the writer supports the results of the survey in most directions. A notable exception is the higher than anticipated amount reported for team play at the Tiny Mite level.

During the last five years there appears to have been a shift away from the stereotyped practice sessions which involved mainly

Table 5.7

Percentage of Practice Time Provided to Selected Items
During Tiny Mite Ice Hockey Practice Sessions; 1975-76[68]

Practice Item	Tiny Mite House League Division N-9			Tiny Mite C Division N-19			Tiny Mite BB Division N-23			Tiny Mite Ice Hockey Practice Summary N-51		
	A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B	C
Warm Up	8	10	8-15	17	8	5-20	22	6.5	2-10	47	7.5	5-20
Skating Skills	9	22	10-40	19	21	5-45	23	27	5-75	51	24	5-75
Puck Control Skills	8	17	10-30	18	18	5-20	22	18.5	10-30	48	18	5-30
Checking Skills	5	10	5-20	15	12	5-20	17	9	5-20	37	10	5-20
Situation Play	7	12.5	5-20	17	13	5-35	19	11	5-20	43	12	5-20
Team Play	7	20	10-50	14	14	5-30	18	15	5-30	39	16	5-50
Special Game Situations	-	-	-	9	7	5-10	14	13.5	5-50	23	11	5-50
Scrimmage	9	21	15-30	12	20	5-100	17	15.8	5-30	38	18.5	5-100
Conditioning	2	-.5	5-10	9	9	5-15	16	10.5	5-15	27	10	5-25

A - Number of coaches who chose the particular item.

B - Average percentage of practice time dedicated to the particular item.

C - Range of response from coaches for each item; low to high choice.

Table 5.8

Percentage of Practice Time Provided to Selected Items During Pee Wee Ice Hockey Practice Sessions; 1975-76 [69]

Practice Item	Pee Wee House League Division N=6			Pee Wee BC & C Divisions N=21			Pee Wee BB Division N=20			Pee Wee Ice Hockey Practice Summary N=47		
	A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B	C
Warm Up	6	9	5-10	20	7	2-10	19	6	5-10	45	7	2-10
Skating Skills	5	17	10-20	21	23	5-20	21	16	5-25	47	19	5-25
Puck Control Skills	6	14	5-20	21	11	5-15	20	14	5-25	47	12.5	5-25
Checking Skills	2	17.5	15-20	17	12	5-30	18	12	5-25	37	12	5-30
Situation Play	5	14	10-20	16	14	5-25	19	15	5-50	40	14.5	5-50
Team Play	5	12	5-15	13	14	5-100	18	13	5-25	36	13	5-100
Special Game Situations	4	15	5-40	14	11	2-10	19	10	5-20	37	11	2-40
Scrimmage	6	19	5-40	17	21	10-25	16	12	5-30	39	17	5-40
Conditioning	3	8	5-10	11	15	5-20	17	10	5-25	31	11.5	5-25

A - Number of coaches who chose the particular item.

B - Average percentage of practice time dedicated to the particular item.

C - Range of responses from coaches for each item; low to high choice.

scrimmage. It appears that roughly one-quarter of the coaches who responded do not employ a scrimmage session in their practice time, and further that of the coaches who do provide time for scrimmaging, only one-fifth of the total practice time involves scrimmage. This apparent down-playing of scrimmaging was supported in at least one-half of the programs observed by the writer. In addition to a change in the nature of practices, a second change seems to be the frequency of practice sessions in relation to games. Whereas in coaching clinics conducted by the writer three to ten years ago, coaches of minor ice hockey reported relatively infrequent opportunities for conducting practice sessions, it now appears, according to the results reported in Table 5.9, that many more practice sessions are being scheduled. Whereas the norm in those previous years was for fewer than ten practices per year for Tiny Mite and Pee Wee coaches, it now appears that coaches at this level are able to schedule almost a ratio of one practice for each game played.[70] The one-to-one ratio, practices to games, appears to apply most directly to teams playing thirty or fewer games per season, and applies least to teams which play a greater number of games. For teams playing many games the ratio appears to be one practice for every two or three games.

The coaches reporting the greatest number of ice hockey contacts during 1975-76 had, in most cases, access to indoor artificial facilities either within their own communities or outside the immediate community on a more expensive rental basis. On the other hand the coaches reporting the least number of ice hockey contacts relied exclusively on outdoor natural ice during a relatively mild winter which

Table 5.9

Number of Games; Number of Practices; Number of Contacts in Minor Ice Hockey in Calgary - 1975-76 [71]

Category of Play	Number of Games Average	Range	Number of Practices Average	Range	Number of Contacts Average	Range
Tiny Mite House League	20.5	16-30	17.0	11-45	37.6	27-77
Tiny Mite C	30.2	18-54	20.3	6-35	50.5	33-89
Tiny Mite BB	38.8	17-60	32.2	15-60	71.0	35-122
Pee Wee House League	21.5	13-33	17.5	8-30	39.0	23-60
Pee Wee BC	26.6	18-36	32.6	12-46	59.3	30-82
Pee Wee C	32.1	14-52	26.8	14-41	58.8	28-84
Pee Wee BB	44.7	20-76	37.6	15-76	82.3	35-144

was not conducive to supporting natural ice. Also reflected in the number of contacts are the interest which the coaches have in their programs, the realities of being competitive at the various levels, and the pressure to play a large number of games during the season.

In total, twelve out of one hundred and eight teams had in excess of one hundred ice hockey contacts during the 1975-76 season.[72] It would appear that the players on these five Tiny Mite BB and seven Pee Wee BB teams were on the ice at least an average of four times per week with some teams organized into five and six ice hockey contacts per week. At the other end of the scale, most house league teams seem to be very fortunate to practise or play three times every two week time period. In this regard it may be noted that most coaches working in situations without the benefit of frequent indoor ice time decry the lack of facilities and the failure of ice scheduling officials to give priority to children's programming.

A summary of the frequency and duration of training sessions and games, and the nature of competition is outlined in Table 5.10. When the contents of Tables 5.9 and 5.10 and the individual data comprising the tables are considered together it may be noted that on the average teams engage in more games than practices and that most of the teams which play a great number of games do not practise a like number of times during the season. The Canadian model for player development has traditionally relied upon playing games, but the trend appears to be towards more practices being scheduled as a complement to game play.

Teams playing in the higher classifications of the respective age divisions are apparently involved in more practices, more games and more total ice hockey contacts during a season than teams in house league and lower classifications of play. Otherwise stated, all-star or representative teams engage in more games, practices and total ice hockey contacts than house league and lower classification teams playing inter-community or inter-locality competition. Special tournaments normally involve a number of games for successful representative teams so the game total mounts quickly for winning teams. Similarly, play-off involvement raises the total number of games in direct proportion to the winning record of the team, so the game total can mount very quickly for successful teams.

The apparent trend towards scheduling more practice sessions seems to be an indication of the influence of the reformist viewpoint.

Table 5.10

Frequency and Duration of Training Sessions; Number of Games; and Type and Extent of Competition in Children's Ice Hockey in Canada[73]

Age Division	Frequency and Duration of Training and Game Sessions per Week	Number of Formal Games in a Season	Type and Extent of Competition
Traditional Viewpoint Programs:			
Beginner (4-6 years)	1-2 x 45-60 minutes	10-40 games	Regulation game play on inter-community or iner-locality basis; all-star or rep. teams; tournaments; may involve league play.
Tyke (6-8 years)	1-4 x 60 minutes	15-88 games (10-15 league games)	Regulation game play on inter-community or inter-locality basis; all-star or rep. teams; tournaments; may involve league play; play-offs.
Mite (8-10 years)	1.5-5 x 60 or 60-75 minutes	16-90 games (12-24 league games)	Regulation game play on inter-community or inter-locality league play basis; all-star or rep. teams; tournaments; play-offs; inter-city competition.
Pee Wee (10-12 years)	1.5-6 x 60 or 60-75 minutes	13-90 games (12-30 league games)	Regulation game play on inter-community or inter-locality league basis; all-star or rep. teams; tournaments; play-offs; provincial competition.
Reformist Viewpoint Programs			
Beginner (4-6 years)	1 x 45-60 minutes	None	Shinny and/or zone play.
Tyke (6-8 years)	1-2 x 45-60 minutes	None	Shinny and/or zone play and possibility of house league or intra-community play.
Mite (8-10 years)	1-3 x 60 minutes	None or perhaps up to 10-15 games	Shinny and/or zone play; intra-community or house league and/or inter-community house league play with regulation games or games with special modified rules.
Pee Wee (10-12 years)	1-3 x 60 or 60-75 minutes	10-30 games	Games on intra-community or inter-community league play basis, with regulation games or games with special modified rules.

Even in programs in which a great number of games are played there does not seem to be as great a disparity in the practice to game ratio as there was in former years during which, in a number of instances, only a handful of practices were held during a season.

There does not appear to be consensus on a single approach which answers the concerns registered with the traditional model or approach in Canadian ice hockey; however, Table 5.10 attempts to condense comments which fit extant programs reflecting the reformist viewpoint. Many programs are springing up across Canada which involve different permutations and combinations of the nature and conditions of competition and programming for children.

Some of the factors which are altered to meet the reformers' philosophy and the perceived needs and interests of the participants in the reformers' views are the following: number, frequency and duration of games; conditions of competition and games including the role of coaches, role of officials, role of competition, use of statistics for individual and team accomplishment, and use of preestablished player rotation and grouping; modifications in rules covering items such as type of shots, use of body in checking, number of players, grouping of players, time on ice, positions, size of ice surface, equipment (that is; amount needed, type, size and specifications), and nature of target or goal; conditions in the social milieu in regard to the role of competition, role of parents and others, and the nature of competition (that is; heterogeneous or homogeneous ranking of players); and the natufe of the developmental process and model (that is; emphasis upon a participant-outcomes orientation).

MASS ICE HOCKEY STREAM

One of the major concerns of the reformist viewpoint is to create a situation in minor ice hockey which will broaden the base of participation, increase the frequency of participation, and extend the period of participation for children, youth and adults. In effect the movement may be seen as an attempt to expand the base of the mass ice hockey stream beyond those participants who play in house league and also-ran classifications of the elite ice hockey stream.

As it stands presently, during the age grouping four to twelve years, the boundaries between the mass ice hockey stream and elite ice hockey stream appear blurred and difficult to distinguish except in the apparent polarizations of each type of programming as previously outlined. The inroads of the reformist point-of-view appear to be creating more programs of a mass ice hockey type in locales across Canada.

In some locales, notably Prince George and Fredericton, and in many communities in cities such as Ottawa, Edmonton, Halifax and Winnipeg, a comprehensive plan outlining levels of skill development, programming and competition, and conditions and expectations surrounding all aspects of programming and competition has been developed. The levels of programming in the foregoing centers include both mass and elite types of emphasis. In other centers a different type of thrust altering the conditions of programming or competition has encouraged realization of the objectives of the mass ice hockey stream. In Windsor and Calgary, for example, children are engaged in programs which feature equal ice time for all participants up to and including the Pee Wee age division. In many communities the philosophy and structure of programming and competition is such that the objectives of a broad base and frequent and longer periods of participation appear to be realized.

In summary, the mass and elite ice hockey streams appear to occupy roughly co-terminous boundaries for ice hockey play involving children. The identification of one emphasis or the other must be assessed through the specific nature of the programming in a given locality, although players participating in all-star teams and house leagues tend to be classed as being in elite and mass ice hockey programs, respectively.

SOME NOTEWORTHY FEATURES OF THE CANADIAN ICE HOCKEY SYSTEM

Perhaps the most noteworthy feature of the Canadian ice hockey system is the omnipresence and pervasiveness of ice hockey in all facets of the Canadian society. This involvement appears to permeate the socialization process of most male Canadians and appears to impinge upon the collective consciousness and psyche of the Canadian populace. The physical and human resources committed towards the organization and administration of the sport of ice hockey appear to be second to no other sport or cultural endeavour in Canada. The extent of programming for children with the large numbers of boys playing in the many teams within the various classifications of each age division comprise a major social movement in Canadian society.

Interested individuals, volunteers, serving in leadership and service roles are the driving force for minor ice hockey programming in Canada. Private and commercial sponsorship accounts for a great deal of the financial support for programming although a significant amount of financing seems to be generated by volunteer-organized funding schemes and projects.

Parental involvement in funding projects and support roles (dictated by the coach or manager) seems to be welcomed by coaches and minor ice hockey functionaries; however, other manners of parental involvement such as parental pressure, parental coaching and parental interference and commentary appear to be a major source of concern for officials.

The near-universality of ice hockey in Canada seems to qualify many, if not most, Canadians as "experts" in ice hockey; consequently, the manner in which this "expertise" is applied by parents becomes a very influential factor in minor ice hockey in Canada. In many programs the role of parents is seen by ice hockey officials as a bane or curse, whereas in other programs the parental role is seen as a boon or blessing. Regardless, the role of parents, especially parents who act as functionaries, is an important determinant in children's ice hockey programming.

Ice hockey programming in Canada seems to flourish in its diversity, individuality and situational nature. A standard or singular approach, curriculum, body of practice, structure of philosophy towards minor ice hockey programming does not seem to exist. An ice hockey programming continuum with two polar ideal-types--

traditional and reformist--exists in Canadian minor ice hockey, with a wide range of programming between the two poles.

Much of this dichotomy seems to evolve from the relatively recent thrust of change, experimentation and innovation which may presumably be traced from a realization that ice hockey is no longer the privy of Canadians and from the persistent problems which seem inherent in Canadian ice hockey. Programming for children seems to be the area of Canadian ice hockey which exhibits the greatest amount of experimentation, innovation and diversity in programming. Modifications in regulations, conditions, expectations, and structure are present in different permutations and combinations within children's ice hockey programming.

Problems centered upon the notion of "winning at all costs" seem to provide a ready rationale for reformers advocating change and restructuring of variables within traditional ice hockey programming. Eskenazi states in reference to ice hockey players that,

> . . . when he is eight-years-old he begins to learn that winning is everything and you play if you can walk.
>
> This attitude, the will to win at all costs, defined . . . as "The Canadian Thing" is the special spirit that makes professional ice hockey the great spectacle it is.[74]

Although the foregoing may be overstated it clearly focuses upon the notion of Canadian ice hockey, at all age divisions, being identified as ends behavior. Each season, in the dominant, traditional type of programming, seems to be played with the prime objective of winning games and laurels, and with seemingly much less concern for long-range player development or related means type of behavior. In most programs players are given recognition and other forms of reinforcement primarily for winning.

This consuming concern for winning is perceived by many minor sports officials as a major problem in children's ice hockey because it encourages or accompanies practices which are also perceived as problems, such as unequal treatment of players, playing when not medically fit, placing undue pressure on participants, employing questionable practices based upon violence, aggression and rule bending, and focusing participation away from more appropriate, desirable, and realizable objectives. Other targets for reform are the over-organization of children's ice hockey, the domination of adults in dictating children's play experiences, the entry of children into structure and programming at a very early age, untrained coaches and self-serving minor ice hockey functionaries and parents who do not consider the developmental needs and interests of the participants.

Despite the relatively extensive inventory of indoor artificial ice arenas and outdoor rinks the shortage of facilities is also decried in Canada. Demand apparently outraces facility availability in a situation in which minor ice hockey officials wish (and expect) to provide more ice time for more players at all age divisions.

The role model provided by professional ice hockey is perceived as unacceptable by many minor ice hockey officials, both of traditional and reformist orientation. The extensive reliance upon games for the development of ice hockey players; the particular structure, philosophy, conditions and manner of operation; and the style of play communicating aggression, situational hostility, violent behavior and intimidation are seen by many Canadian functionaries to be inappropriate for children to emulate. Numerous illustrations have been cited, however, to indicate the pervasiveness of the professional influence in minor hockey. The emphasis upon calculated use of physical intimidation, fisticuffs and aggression in professional ice hockey appears to have influenced the style of play in minor ice hockey in Canada. Concern for safety and prevention of injury has coerced minor ice hockey officials and parents into outfitting young players in progressively more protective equipment, leading to progressively greater expense in equipping the young and growing ice hockey player. The desirability and effects of enveloping protection currently are being debated by the Canadian ice hockey public. An illustration lies in the use of face masks and face guards by minor players. Although face protectors prevent injury, they are linked by some officials with players carrying their sticks higher and generally playing less cautiously.

Ice hockey officials have noted a slight drop-off in total numbers of participants in younger age divisions during the last two years and some speculate that this has a correlation with trends not only in population, but also in the style of play and milieu emanating from professional ice hockey which has received considerable adverse publicity and notoriety in Canada in recent years.

Ice hockey is not the only sport coming under criticism, as the practices and philosophy rationalizing all minor sport appear to be under close scrutiny by a vocal minority in Canada (and all North America).[75] There seem to be some differences in the particular criticisms or concerns which are directed towards the respective minor sports, but they do share many of the following criticisms; untrained leaders and inappropriate adult involvement; questionable and inappropriate program objectives, philosophy and milieu (which embrace a host of the targets for reform previously cited); not enough instruction in basic skills; not enough ice hockey for boys who do not make the "big" team; a selection procedure and developmental and competitive process which places much stress on very young participants; and concern for the overall direction of all levels of ice hockey in Canada. These problems have evolved into issues which have become of progressively more concern to minor ice hockey officials and parents although the predominant type of programming remains traditional in nature.

SOME CONCLUDING REMARKS

Canadian ice hockey may be viewed as a process of natural selection which advances appropriately-skilled and motivated children and youth towards the cherished status of a professional ice hockey player. Players in all age divisions face the constant pressure of maintaining their spots in the line-up and contributing towards the ever-present objective of winning games and championships.

The typical process of socialization inculcates a style of play, attitude and value orientation, and environment which generally reflects the professional ice hockey milieu. The trend in Canadian ice hockey appears to feature increasing experimentation, innovation and attention to the concerns of a vocal minority of reform-oriented individuals and groups. Their impact apparently is generating a total picture of children's ice hockey in Canada which reflects diversity, change and intensified attempts to create a sounder foundation for the Canadian ice hockey system and a more suitable environment for ice hockey-playing children and youth.

CHAPTER V FOOTNOTES

[1] "Bing" Caswell and John R. Life, *The Fundamentals of Ice Hockey* (Midland: Midland Press, 1950), p. 7. The writers cite a Canadian Amateur Hockey Association Research Committee Report of 1942, which indicates the dates and events as outlined for 1783 and 1855. Little reliable evidence seems to be available about the actual antecedents and evolutionary development of ice hockey in Canada. Considerable debate upon the first actual game and its site and conditions seems to prevail.

[2] Ibid. Shinny may take various forms. The original game in 1847 is thought to have had two teams of indeterminate number of players playing with one rule; shinny (or play) on your own side of the object (ball or whatever). Shinny today carries the same nature and is normally thought of as a low organization game.

[3] The debate on the official, unofficial or other status of ice hockey (and lacrosse) has been waged at various times by various Canadian commentators in all the media forms: newspapers, radio, television, magazines, books and in speeches and so on. The writer has attempted to summarize the positions without regard for the advocates of each position as specific documentation would be extremely difficult. Canada has not officially enacted either sport as the official national sport in the legislative sense.

[4] The attempts to attach meaning and significance to the role of ice hockey have been advanced by various spokesmen in the various media at various times. Exemplary documentation is contained in the following sources: Bruce Kidd and John Macfarlane, *The Death of Hockey* (Toronto: New Press, 1972).

Jack Ludwig, *Hockey Night in Moscow* (Richmond Hill: Simon & Schuster, 1974).

Brian Conacher, *Hockey in Canada: The Way It Is* (Richmond Hill: Simon & Schuster, 1971).

Howard L. Nixon, "Growing Up With Hockey in Canada," *International Review of Sport Sociology*, Vol. I (11), (1976), pp. 37-48.

Gerald Eskenazi, *A Thinking Man's Guide to Pro Hockey* (New York: E. P. Dutton, 1972).

[5] Estimate of 750,000 provided by Dennis McDonald, Technical Director, Canadian Amateur Hockey Association, in personal correspondence to the writer, August 27, 1976; estimate of 800,000 by Gordon Juckes, Executive Director, CAHA in Gordon Juckes, "The CAHA: What It Is, What It Does," *Hockey: 1975-76 Review*, ed. Larry F. Skinner (Ottawa: Canadian Amateur Hockey Association, 1976), pp. 34, 35.

[6] Estimate of 700,000 contained in Gordon Renwick, Robert Hindmarch and Dennis McDonald, "Hockey Development Council: Hockey Development Proposal, 1976-1981" (Ottawa: Canadian Amateur Hockey Association, Jan. 28, 1976), p. 9. (Mimeographed.)

[7] Figures provided to the writer by Jean-Marc Lemire, Planning Coordinator, Fitness and Amateur Sports Branch, Health and Welfare, Canada, in personal correspondence with the writer dated September 7, 1976. The final report of the "Inventory of Sport Facilities" is scheduled to be published in early 1977.

[8] The estimates are extrapolations of known numbers determined from the CAHA Branch responses to the questionnaire in Appendix B, and the information supplied by Lemire on the 1974 Inventory of Sports Facilities. The 1974 Inventory figures and the CAHA Branch figures vary quite considerably in many instances. For example: Ontario, according to the 1974 Inventory has 436 indoor rinks whereas the Ontario Hockey Association reports 855 indoor rinks; Manitoba has 56 indoor and 126 outdoor rinks according to the Inventory whereas the Manitoba Amateur Hockey Association reports 210 indoor and 830 outdoor rinks; Alberta has 118 indoor and 242 outdoor rinks according to the 1974 Inventory, while the Alberta Amateur Hockey Association reports 143 indoor and 328 (at least) outdoor rinks. Towns and villages with populations less than 1,000 in Manitoba, Saskatchewan, Alberta and other provinces would seem to possess many facilities which lie outside the sampling technique employed in the 1974 Inventory.

[9] Estimates based on responses to questionnaire from CAHA Branch officials.

[10] The schedule of construction of new indoor facilities has apparently been outstripped by the rising expectations of Canadian players and coaches who wish to play and practise indoors rather than be subject to the elements and poor or unusable ice.

[11] A notable exception to the geographical basis for hockey participation and competition is the Metropolitan Toronto Hockey League (M.T.H.L.) in Toronto, where very active club officials and commercial sponsors frequently team to recruit the best players for a given team. Boys may be recruited from all over Toronto regardless of boundaries. In fact, some boys have been recruited from outside Toronto. Many of the prominent clubs such as North York, East York, Mississauga and Dorset Park are or have been community-based to the extent of name, home arena, club officials and some players. Two other groups, the Nationals and the Marlboroughs, are commercially-sponsored organizations which are among the most competitive and successful of the groups operating in the free-market competition for playing talent. The coaches for some of the teams in these latter two organizations receive honoraria and perquisites for representing the sponsors well. Information was supplied during discussion with a coach of the Mississauga Midget team in Metropolitan Toronto Hockey League, September 12, 1976, Toronto; and from discussions with other authorities on the Toronto situation.

[12] Most frequently ice hockey clubs and organizations organize programs for youth rather than for children so their endeavour lies outside the scope of this study. The M.T.H.L. clubs are an obvious exception as they recruit for their Minor Atom teams, aged nine years. The educational institutions also tend to program junior high and senior high school boy competitions so their endeavour is also mainly outside the scope of this study. In Saskatchewan, Nova Scotia, British Columbia and perhaps Ontario, some children aged ten and upwards are involved in school boy ice hockey competition so they may be considered within the study.

[13] Edmund W. Vaz, "What Price Victory? An Analysis of Minor Hockey League Players' Attitudes Towards Winning," *International Review of Sport Sociology*, Vol. 2 (9), (1974), pp. 33-53; see also Harry Webb, "Professionalization of Attitudes Toward Play Among Adolescents," *Aspects of Contemporary Sports Sociology* (Chicago: The Athletic Institute, 1969), pp. 161-78; see also Nixon, op. cit.

[14] Brian Conacher, loc. cit., p. 8.

[15] Jack Ludwig, loc. cit., pp. 13-15.

[16] Michael D. Smith and Frederic Diamond, "Career Mobility in Professional Hockey," *Canadian Sport: Sociological Perspectives*, ed. Richard S. Gruneau and John G. Albinson (Don Mills: Addison-Wesley [Canada] Ltd., 1976), p. 185.

[17] An illustration of this line of thinking is contained in the following statement by Jack Ludwig, "Ken Dryden, Hockey's Lonely Forerunner," *Maclean's* (February, 1973), p. 79. In referring to the losses suffered by the Canadian National Team in 1969 to the USSR and Czechoslovakia, Ludwig states, "But anybody hearing of that series would not think, 'The USSR and Czechoslovakia must be very good.' The common response was, 'sure, but that was the Canadian national team,' which, as everyone knew, was made up of school boys, guys too small or too slight or too slow to make the NHL, or a few broken-down ungolden oldies. Few doubted that the NHL All-Stars playing under the rubric of 'Team Canada' would beat hell out of the USSR and avenge all previous Canadian losses with a bonus here and there for good measure."

[18] Information gleaned regarding strain in international relations from conversations with: Jack Church, First Secretary, Canadian Embassy in Sweden, Stockholm, November, 1974; and Peter Walker, Second Secretary, Canadian Embassy in the USSR, Moscow, December, 1974.

[19] The Federal Government, through the Department of Health and Welfare, commissioned three major study reports on the status of amateur and minor ice hockey in Canada:

a. Hockey Study Committee of National Advisory Council on Fitness and Amateur Sport, *The Report on Amateur Hockey in Canada* (Ottawa: Department of National Health and Welfare, January, 1967);

b. G. Meagher, *Federal Government Hockey Study Report, Amateur Hockey in Canada, a Blueprint for the 70's and Beyond* (Ottawa: Department of National Health and Welfare, 1971);

c. Hockey Study Committee of the National Advisory Council on Fitness and Amateur Sport, *Minor-Age Hockey in Canada* (Fredericton: Department of National Health and Welfare, Part 2, 1973).

[20] The respective provincial reports are as follows:

a. Alberta: L. W. Downey and Associations, *The Report of an Inquiry into the Rights of Individuals in Amateur Sports (Hockey)* (Edmonton: Department of Culture, Youth and Recreation, Government of Alberta, July, 1973); and L. W. Downey and Associates, *Addendum to the Report of an Inquiry into the Rights of Individuals in Amateur Sports (Hockey)* (Edmonton: Department of Culture, Youth and Recreation, Government of Alberta, December, 1973;

b. Saskatchewan: Saskatchewan Hockey Task Force: *Final Report* (Regina: Department of Culture and Youth, Government of Saskatchewan, April 17, 1974);

c. Ontario: William R. McMurtry, *Investigation and Inquiry into Violence in Amateur Hockey* (Toronto: Ministry of Community and Social Services, Province of Ontario, August 21, 1974).

It may be noted that a major ice hockey study was commissioned by the Alberta Department of Youth in 1967: Alberta Department of Youth Hockey Study Committee, *Final Report of the Alberta Department of Youth Hockey Study Committee* (Edmonton: Department of Youth, Government of the Province of Alberta, November 15, 1967).

[21] John Robertson, "Minor Hockey: Playing for Fun Not for Keeps," *Maclean's* (October, 1974), p. 108.

[22] Nixon, loc. cit., p. 40.

[23] Vaz, loc. cit., p. 35.

[24] Information provided from questionnaire to various CAHA branches and from the following source: Terry Orlick and Cal Botterill, *Every Kid Can Win* (Chicago: Nelson-Hall, 1975), pp. 51 and 52.

[25] Canadian Amateur Hockey Association, *1977 CAHA Hockey Handbook* (Ottawa: CAHA, May, 1976), p. 10.

[26] The branches within the CAHA are the following: British Columbia Amateur Hockey Association, Alberta Amateur Hockey Association, Saskatchewan Amateur Hockey Association, Manitoba Amateur Hockey Association, Thunder Bay Amateur Hockey Association, Ontario Hockey Association, Ottawa and District Hockey Association, Quebec Ice Hockey Federation, New Brunswick Amateur Hockey Association, Prince Edward Island Hockey Association, Nova Scotia Hockey Association, and Newfoundland Amateur Hockey Association. Most of the branches have jurisdiction over the provincial area from which they derive their name,

with the following special cases: the Alberta Amateur Hockey Association includes responsibility for the North West Territories, Newfoundland Amateur Hockey Association includes responsibility for Labrador, Thunder Bay Amateur Hockey Association has jurisdiction over North-western Ontario west of the 85th Meridian, and the Ottawa and District Hockey Association has jurisdiction over three counties and the eastern area of the province of Ontario.

[27] The Alberta Amateur Hockey Association, for example, is divided into five zones for membership on the Board of Directors and nine zones for minor ice hockey. The committee and council structure is not as extensive as the CAHA structure, with only three councils--Senior-Intermediate, Junior and Minor--and four committees--Management, Registration, Credentials and Referees--in addition to the Board of Directors. A complete description of the Alberta Amateur Hockey Association is contained in: Alberta Amateur Hockey Association, *Constitution and By-Laws* (Calgary: Alberta Amateur Hockey Association, 1976-77).

[28] Juckes, loc. cit., p. 34.

[29] CAHA, loc. cit., pp. 22-32.
Notes for Illustration 5.1:

a. The elected officers of the CAHA who form the Executive Committee include the President, Immediate Past President, First Vice-President, Vice-President (Senior-Intermediate Hockey), Vice-President (Junior Hockey), Vice-President (Minor Hockey), Vice-President at Large, and Executive Director.

b. The Board of Directors includes the aforementioned officers, the Branch Presidents of the twelve branches, Council Representatives from the Senior-Intermediate, Junior and Minor Councils, and a representative from Major Junior Ice Hockey.

c. The Administrative Staff is headed by the Executive Director and includes an Administrative Director, Development Coordinator and Communications and Marketing Director in addition to office staff.

d. The Negotiating Committee is charged with the duty of conferring and negotiating with the representatives of the National Hockey League, World Hockey Association and other professional organizations.

e. A Hockey Scholastic Council has been proposed but it has not been formally structured so it is not included in the illustration.

[30] The National Coaches' Certification Program and the National Referees' Certification Program are the two main leadership development programs organized by the Hockey Development Council. In addition, the following publications have been produced under the direction of Hockey Canada and the Hockey Technical Advisory Committee, established in 1972 as the forerunner to the Hockey Development Council: Georges Lariviere, *The Beginner's Program* (Toronto: Hockey Canada, 1972); Buck Matiowski,

Dynamic Skating (Toronto: Hockey Canada, 1972); John Almstedt, *Hockey Development Guide: 8 to 18 Years* (Toronto: Hockey Canada, 1972).

[31] The Hockey Development Council is made up of the following participants: Sport Canada; Canadian College Athletic Association; Canadian Intercollegiate Athletic Union; Canadian Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation; Canadian Federation of Provincial Schools' Athletic Association; Provincial Directors of Sport and Recreation; Coaching Association of Canada; Representatives from all the Branches of the CAHA; Representatives from each Council in the CAHA --Senior-Intermediate, Junior, Minor; CAHA Rule Committee representative; and the First Vice-President, Technical Director, and a Director from the CAHA.

[32] In 1975-76 over $450,000 was spent on development program material by the Hockey Development Council, according to Gordon Juckes, op. cit.

[33] The Department of Health and Welfare has recently launched an "Operation Lifestyle" campaign for health preservation through improved lifestyle habits. In this connection, legislation has been introduced by the Federal Government which progressively limits the opportunity of certain categories of advertising which market products which run counter to the Operation Lifestyle Program. Cigarettes, alcoholic beverage and drug advertisements are curtailed, so sport seems to afford the second-best visibility for these advertisers.

[34] Distillery and brewery interests now directly own the two major league baseball teams in Canada and one of the major professional league ice hockey teams. Brewery sponsorship of the Canada Cup Tournament, International Coaches' Symposium and National Coaches' Certification Program may also be cited to illustrate this item. In addition, the CAHA skill development posters program is sponsored by a soft drink company; tournaments, special competitions, publication of printed materials and skill films have all been sponsored at least partially by private industry. Manufacturers of ice hockey equipment and supplies, chocolate bars, convenience foods and so on have also been involved with CAHA project sponsorship. To these illustrations may be added the extensive sponsorship of associations, teams, local activities, and the funding derived from advertising in game programs and other publications.

[35] Renwick, et al., loc. cit., pp. 10 and 11.

[36] Hockey Development Council, *National Certification Program: Level 1 Manual* (Ottawa: CAHA, 1974); see also Hockey Development Council, *National Coaches' Certification Program: Level 2 Manual* (Ottawa: CAHA, 1974).

[37] Barry McPherson, "Career Patterns of a Voluntary Role: The Minor Hockey Coach," paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Canadian Sociology and Anthropology Association, Toronto, 1974.

[38] Hockey Development Council, *National Coaches' Certification Program: Level 3 Manual* (Ottawa: CAHA, 1974). Standardized manuals for Levels 4 and 5 are not published, although proceedings or summary reports are normally available from each meeting provincially or nationally which offers Levels 4 and 5, respectively. During 1975-76 the Hockey Development Council reported that 6,921 completed Level 1; 8,935 completed Level 2; 2,484 completed Level 3; 579 completed Level 4; and 100 completed Level 5. In total, 18,919 were reported to have taken the CAHA program in 1975-76. Source: CAHA, *Minutes: 59th Annual Meeting* (Penticton, May 22-27, 1976), p. 81.

[39] Juckes, loc. cit., p. 34.

[40] Hockey Development Council, Level 1 Manual, op. cit.; see also Hal Hansen, "Plea to Save Thousands of Hockey Players Who Want to Enjoy the Sport," *Canadian Coach* (July, 1972), p. 7.

[41] CAHA; "Minutes: 59th Annual Meeting," op. cit. (See Footnote 38 for a breakdown of the numbers of participants according to level.) It is presumed that many coaches would take Levels 1 and 2 at the same time because the N.C.C.P. program is designed to encourage this.

[42] Estimate by the writer is based upon a minimum of 12,000 discrete participants in 1975-76, and 7,000 in 1974-75 N.C.C.P. programs; and an estimated 6000 participants who took one of the three Hockey Canada Certification Program levels from 1971 to 1973. When attrition and transiency within the coaching role are considered in combination with the duplication and overlap in the numbers of participants it is estimated that at least 18,000 active coaches have some training to at least a minimal standard.

[43] CAHA, "Minutes . . . ," op. cit., see also Canadian Amateur Hockey Association, "Minutes: 58th Annual Meeting," Quebec City, 1975.

Notes:

a. Within the Major Junior A category there are an estimated 680 players based upon 34 teams which compete within the three leagues across Canada.

b. The ages for the players in the various divisions for play will be outlined in Table 5.2.

c. The category, "Others," includes a variety of divisions and classes of players. The category varies according to the classifications dictated by the regulations of each branch of the CAHA. In some provinces "Others" are those players on girls' ice hockey teams; in others, school ice hockey teams; and in others, children's ice hockey in age groups below eight years.

d. Although the two year picture does not communicate the trend towards registering more players directly with the CAHS, a longer-range picture indicates increased direct registration rather than affiliation.

e. Not included in the Branch registration figures are various classifications of children's ice hockey players below age eight; house league play for children and youth; and casual, episodic play of a recreational nature.

[44] McDonald, op. cit.

[45] Douglas Fisher, in Ken Dryden, *Face-Off at the Summit* (Boston: Little, Brown and Co., 1973), p. 82.

[46] Notes:

a. Estimates are based upon known numbers of participants in certain categories of play (See Table 5.1), known numbers of participants and teams in Calgary and Edmonton, with extrapolation of these and some rural locality profiles, reports from CAHA Branch officials, and residual impressions gained from association with minor ice hockey.

b. The elite ice hockey stream is perceived by the writer to embrace mainly the age divisions from Bantam upwards. While all-star, representative and top classification teams are identified in the Beginner, Tyke, Mite and Pee Wee age divisions, placement on such teams does not seem to be as definitive to late success as does placement on all-star, representative or top classification teams in the Bantam, Midget, and Juvenile age divisions. Analysis of the careers of professional and junior professional players leads to inconclusive evidence on the necessity to be involved with the top classification teams at an early age. There appear to be many exceptions to the theoretically ideal pattern of development through play in the top categories of all the age divisions of play leading towards professional ice hockey. The use of indeterminate boundaries as sketched within the "Top Category Minor Ice Hockey" portion of the illustration is designed to communicate the anticipated but varied route of the top players who surface in the top classifications of Midget, Juvenile and Junior professional age divisions.

c. "Top Category Minor Ice Hockey" includes players who may become prime candidates for the elite ice hockey stream but whose ultimate disposition depends upon a multitude of factors including: talent, interest, aspiration, local conditions, fate and circumstance. Players in this portion of the Canadian ice hockey system are operationally defined as players in the top age division classifications of ice hockey in their respective localities. Junior A, with 1770 players, is included in this portion of the profile for two reason; firstly, that some players obtain ice hockey scholarships in the United States which may eventually lead to professional play, and secondly, that many of the Junior A teams are developmental teams for Major Junior A teams. An estimated 10,000 players, aged four to six years, are included in this portion of the profile as an indication of the extent of organized play for this age grouping in Canada.

d. "Secondary Categories of Minor and Amateur Ice Hockey" embraces all other classifications than those considered to be the top age division classifications in a given locality. Players in these secondary categories are not prohibited from moving into the best classifications of ice hockey play, particularly if they are in the younger age divisions. Adults playing Senior and Intermediate ice hockey are included in this category of the illustration.

e. The Mass Ice Hockey Stream category includes house league teams for Tykes, Mites, Pee Wees and Bantams; school ice hockey teams in given localities; and recreational ice hockey teams or groups for older players including adults who participate on a more-or-less regular basis. No attempt has been made to include all the episodic participants who are not within "organized" programs. The number of such participants is legion defying estimation, except to indicate that the cultural encouragement of ice hockey for children equips many Canadians with the skills to play ice hockey episodically if they so desire.

f. Listed below are the estimated numbers of participants in the various age divisions and categories which have been used as the basis for Illustration 5.1.

Age Division/ Classification	Elite Ice Hockey Stream	Top Category Minor Ice Hockey	Secondary Categories Minor & Amateur	Mass Ice Hockey Stream
20+ Professional	1,300			
Senior & Intermediate			27,336	
Other				16,000
20 & Under Major Junior A	580			
Junior A		1,770		
Junior B,C,D,			10,328	
Other				8,000
18 & Under Juvenile(Top)	5,000			
Juvenile (Other)			25,483	
Other				10,000
16 & Under Midget(Top)	15,000			
Midget (Other)			70,969	
Other				15,000
14 & Under Bantam(Top)		55,000		
Bantam (Other)			64,214	
Other				20,000
12 & Under Pee Wee(Top)		75,000		
Pee Wee (Other)			76,650	
Other				40,000
10 & Under Mite(Top)		85,000		
Mite (Other)			52,537	
Other				37,000
8 & Under Tyke (Top)		50,000		
Tyke (Other)			25,000	
Other				30,000
6 & Under Beginner		10,000		15,000

[47] In a questionnaire, "Survey of Minor Ice Hockey Programs for Children in Calgary," the rank ordering, where situations allowed a selection process, was as appears in the text. The survey of minor ice hockey coaches at the Tyke, Mite and Pee Wee age divisions was conducted by the writer in November, 1976.

[48] The main source for Table 5.2 is the following: Alberta Amateur Hockey Association, *Constitution and By-Laws* (Calgary: AAHA, 1976), pp. 36-39.

Notes:

a. Classifications and nomenclature also reflect information from CAHA branches in addition to Alberta.

b. The CAHA has standardized competition from the Pee Wee to the Senior divisions, so consistent nomenclature is employed across Canada in all the branches. The nomenclature and the age divisions below Pee Wee are not consistent and reflect local conditions and regulations. Illustration of the varying terms may be noted in the Mite, et al., and Tyke, et al., divisions which follow. Some other names employed by localities to name the six and under age grouping include: Pee Wees, Ankle Bender, Squirt, A, B and so on. For the eight and under Tyke age grouping, some other names include the following: Minor Atom, Novice, Squirt, Little Richard and Peanut. For the ten and under age divisions, Tiny Mite, Atom, Tom Thumb, Novice, and Mosquito are among the descriptive names used. Many localities organize competition for Beginners, et al., whereas other localities do not. Local regulations, philosophy and interests dictate the situation for the lower age divisions.

c. House leagues operate mainly from the Beginner to the Pee Wee age divisions. Some localities have Bantam house league play but most apparently do not. The house league classification should be added to those appropriate classifications outlined in Table 5.2, although in some centers the lowest classification (for example, B, C, D) may denote house league.

d. The professional leagues, NHL and WHA, normally hold a universal draft of players who will be graduating from Junior hockey; however, the WHA initiated a practice, which was subsequently followed by the NHL, which was in effect an under-age draft of players eighteen years of age. The continuation of this under-age draft is currently under discussion between the Canadian Major Junior Hockey League officials and professional interests.

e. Major Junior A or Tier 1 Junior hockey indicates the top level of play in Junior ice hockey. The Canadian Major Junior Hockey League embraces three regional leagues involving thirty-four teams. In 1975-76 each team was allowed to use four "over-age" players, while in 1976-77 only one player up to age 22 years of age as of December 31 was allowed.

[49] Sources for Table 5.3 were as follows:

Ron Andrews (ed.), *1975-76 National Hockey League Guide* (Montreal: National Hockey League, 1975), and: discussion with professional officials and observation of professional try-out camps and seasonal practices in various Canadian settings. Notes:

a. Some teams at the professional level have a physical fitness test at the start of the try-out camp.

b. The complementary practices for professionals may be categorized into two types; a game-day skating and shooting session, and a more intensive training and scrimmage session on selected non-game days.

c. It appears that an increasing number of players are following an off-season training regimen, but the majority of players do not actively pursue maintenance or improvement of their physical fitness levels.

[50] Table 5.4 is derived from discussion with minor ice hockey officials in Edmonton, Toronto, Vancouver, Saskatoon, Calgary and other smaller Alberta localities. Notes:

a. The time periods listed are for teams which have access to artificial ice; those teams relying on natural ice will start at a later date. For example, in Alberta the following would be more appropriate time periods for programs based on natural ice:

Pre-Season--November 15(1) - December 1-10;
Active Season--December 1-10 - February 28 (March 10); and
Off-Season--March 1(11) - November 14 (October 31).

b. Many players may try out for teams which are programmed on artificial ice; if they are not successful, they then await climatic conditions which will support natural ice.

c. Teams which are programmed on natural ice are reliant upon favorable climatic conditions in order to fulfill their game and practice schedules.

d. The summer ice hockey schools, operated by professional players, municipal, association and other entrepreneurs, are scheduled during the July and August time period for seven, ten or fourteen day intervals. The programming and nature of the schools vary considerably.

e. Local conditions vary so the precise dates must be adjusted to local exigencies.

[51] Vaz, loc. cit., p. 46.

[52] Ibid., p. 38.

[53] Notes:

a. The large community district selected was Triwood Community in north-west Calgary. It is a model program in a number of respects, although it is atypical in the respect that it now has an indoor community facility so reliance on outdoor or municipal ice is no longer necessary.

b. The small community district selected was West Mount Pleasant Community in north-west Calgary. It seems typical of small communities in most respects, although one exception may be the support of a Midget team. Many small communities operate with only Tiny Mite, Pee Wee and Bantam teams. Midget, Juvenile and Junior usually require a cluster of communities to generate enough interested participants.

c. Each team comprised approximately fifteen players.

d. The Little Richard League is an inter-community league for boys eight and under.

e. In each instance, "house league," "C" and "BB" competition designates the lowest, middle and highest classifications, respectively.

f. Typically, house league ends with the Bantam age division players. Evidence of house leagues for Midget players organized by communities or associations could not be located by the writer.

[54] Gary Smith, *Edmonton Metropolitan Hockey Association: 1975-76 Annual Report*, Edmonton, July, 1976, p. 7.

[55] Robertson's statement may be cited to illustrate a frequent effect of the selection process: "As a parent of a young son of average athletic ability--which means he plays house league instead of on the elite neighorhood team in his age group--I know firsthand about the tearful trip home from the rink after being told, at the age of eight, that Timmy wasn't good enough to play for the big team." (Robertson, op. cit.)

[56] Nixon, loc. cit., p. 45. See also Webb, op. cit., for a complete discussion on the indices of professionalization of play attitudes.

[57] Vaz, loc. cit., p. 34.

[58] Thomas Tutko and William Bruns, *Winning is Everything and Other American Myths* (New York: Macmillan Publishing Co., Inc., 1976), p. viii.

[59] Ibid.

[60] Cecil Eaves, former Technical Director, CAHA, outlines the role of zealous parents and associations in J. Alex Murray, *Sport or Athletics: A North American Dilemma* (Windsor: Canadian-American Seminar, 1973), p. 109, and; in a discussion with a Pee Wee coach for Mississauga, Ontario, he indicated that a number of Metropolitan Toronto Hockey League teams at all levels played upwards of eighty and ninety games which often involved considerable travel, competition in tournaments and exhibition games in addition to localized play. September 12, 1976, Toronto.

[61] Information supplied by Ken McIntosh, an official of the Calgary Minor Hockey Association, in a discussion November, 1976.

[62] For example; the MTHL situation may be cited from Footnote 46; also Windsor (eighty-two games [interview with Andre Bouchard, parent of an all-star player in Windsor system, CBC "Morningside" Program, November 10, 1976]); Calgary (eighty-eight games [Report by Bowness Community Tyke Ice Hockey Coach in clinic session, October 17, 1975.]).

[63] Information taken from "Survey of Minor Ice Hockey Programs for Children in Calgary," November, 1976, conducted by the writer.

[64] Westgate Community, Calgary, Program for Tiny Tykes, ages five to eight years conducted by Ken McIntosh and Larry Bell in 1975-76. The program embraced fifty children, some of whom were four and five years of age. (For the youngest children the program was mainly a learn-to-skate experience.)

[65] Notes:

a. The information outlined in Table 5.6 represents a composite of the various programs observed by the writer and the results of a survey response from 108 Tiny Mite and Pee Wee minor ice hockey coaches in Calgary ("Survey of Minor Ice Hockey Programs for Children in Calgary").

b. The table is an amalgam of the traditionalist and reformist viewpoints. The items listed within the program content may be oriented towards one or the other viewpoint by altering methodology, conditions and design of a particular program.

c. The program content should be considered in light of the other discussion in Chapter V and the material presented in Tables 5.7 and 5.8, which summarize some of the results obtained from a study on minor ice hockey programs for children in Calgary.

[66] The reader's attention is directed towards the previous citations for the CAHA publications (*The Beginner's Program; Dynamic Skating; Hockey Development Guide; Levels 1, 2 and 3 of N.C.C.P.*) and other aids (*Let's Play Better Hockey*) in this chapter. To the foregoing group other curriculum references employed by minor ice hockey coaches should be added:

a. Bill L'Heureux (ed.), *Beginning Hockey* (Ottawa: The Queen's Printer, 1963);

b. Bill L'Heureux (ed.), *How to Play Better Hockey* (Ottawa: The Queen's Printer, 1963);

c. Bill L'Heureux (ed.), *Coach's Manual--Hockey* (Ottawa: The Queen's Printer, 1963);

d. Howie Meeker, *Howie Meeker's Hockey Basics* (Scarborough: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1973);

e. Howie Meeker, *More Hockey Basics from Howie Meeker* (Scarborough: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1975);

f. Bob Kabel, *Hockey Coaches Clinic* (Toronto: Labatt's Breweries of Canada, Ltd., 1974);

g. Crown Life of Canada, *Helpful Hints for Hockey Coaches* (Toronto: Crown Life of Canada, 1968);

h. Canadian Amateur Hockey Association, *Guide for Minor Hockey Coaches* (Ottawa: Canadian Amateur Hockey Association, 1973);

i. Jim Gregory, *Tips on Team Play* (Toronto: Al Stewart Enterprises Ltd., 1967),

[67] Information from "Survey of Minor Hockey Programs for Children in Calgary," November, 1976; conducted by the writer. The breakdown for number of sessions employed and number of coaches, respectively, is as follows: 1 session - 5 coaches; 2 sessions - 8 coaches; 3 sessions - 4 coaches; 4 sessions - 6 coaches; 5 sessions - 4 coaches; 6 sessions - 3 coaches; and 9, 12, 13, 15, 17 and 18 sessions - 1 coach for each number.

[68] "Survey of Minor Ice Hockey Programs for Children in Calgary," op. cit. Notes:

a. The Practice Items which may need elaboration are the following:

i. Situation Play--involves situations such as 1 on 1, 2 on 1, 2 on 2 and 3 on 2, which occur during game play.

ii. Special Game Situations--involves situations such as power play with man (or two men) advantage, shorthanded play with man (or two men) disadvantage, and offensive play with pulled goaltender, which occur during game play.

iii. Conditioning Skating--involves use of skating drills, frequently near the end of practice, which are used mainly to improve the fitness level of the players.

b. "N" indicates the number of coaches who responded in this section of the questionnaire.

c. One coach in the Tiny Mite C division indicated that in every third practice he would conduct a scrimmage for the full duration of the session. His response was averaged on the basis of three practices being treated as one for the purposes of calculation.

d. Tiny Mite ice hockey involves boys up to ten years of age.

[69] "Survey of Minor Ice Hockey Programs for Children in Calgary," op. cit. Notes a. and b. from Footnote 68 apply to this table also.

[70] Discussions during clinics conducted by the writer for Hockey Canada and the CAHA revealed the paucity of practices scheduled in minor ice hockey during the time period 1967 to 1974. A key influence in this situation is the weather conditions in a given year. Supportive weather conditions allow more practices to be scheduled, particularly in the younger age divisions.

[71] "Survey of Minor Ice Hockey Programs for Children in Calgary," op. cit. Notes:

a. The Number of Games includes an average of fourteen league games for each age division and classification of play. This category includes league, exhibition, tournament and play-off games; in other words, all games played by the team.

b. The Number of Practices includes on-ice, dryland, chalk-talk and other practices.

c. The Number of Contacts includes the total number of games and practices during the season.

d. In each category the Range represents the range of responses provided by the respondents; that is, from fewest to greatest number.

e. During 1975-76 two Calgary programs were monitored. The responses from coaches on the questionnaire seem to be in agreement with the observations on the nature of the practices.

[72] "Survey of Minor Ice Hockey Programs for Children in Calgary," op. cit.

[73] Table 5.10 was developed from information provided by authorities in various localities in Canada, including Halifax, Fredericton, Toronto, Windsor, Regina, Edmonton, Red Deer, Calgary and Vancouver; from personal observation and immersion in the Canadian minor ice hockey scene; and from the "Survey of Minor Ice Hockey Programs for Children in Calgary." Notes:

a. For purposes of presentation, ideal-types of programming to fit the traditionalist viewpoint and reformist viewpoint have been created. This diversity should be recognized when considering the contents of this table. A summary does not seem to be able to outline all the diversity present in minor ice hockey in Canada.

b. Teams practising on outdoor natural ice appear to practise for a longer period than is reported on the table. Practices of 75, 75-90 and 90 minutes on outdoor ice were reported by a number of coaches. The premium placed on indoor artificial ice appears to serve to limit the practice time on indoor ice, although there are a number of exceptions to this generalization.

c. The frequency of ice hockey contacts per week in a given program is determined by the length of the season; the nature and intensity of the league, tournament and play-off games; and the availability of ice for training and game sessions.

d. The structure and extent of formal game competition appears to vary widely across Canada, with unsubstantiated reports of teams in the different age divisions playing in excess of one hundred games in a season.

e. Many communities do not schedule Beginner age division ice hockey. Illustration 5.1 provides an indication of this pattern.

f. The modified rules referred to in the programs oriented to the reformist viewpoint will be outlined later in the text of the chapter.

[74] Eskenazi, loc. cit., frontispiece.

[75] Some examples of critical and concerned writing are contained in the following sources:

Kidd and Macfarlane, op. cit.; Conacher, op. cit.; Hansen, op. cit.; Tutko and Bruns, op. cit.; Terry Orlick and Cal Botterill, *Every Kid Can Win* (Chicago: Nelson-Hall, 1975); Penny Kome, "Fun and Games," *The Canadian Magazine* (December 25, 1976), pp. 18, 19; G. E. Mortimore, "What's Happened to Hockey?" reprinted from *The Globe and Mail* (1964); and Renate Wilson, *For the Love of Sport* (Vancouver: J. J. Douglas, Ltd., 1975).

Chapter VI

TOWARDS A SYNTHESIS OF THE ORGANIZATION AND DEVELOPMENT OF ICE HOCKEY DURING CHILDHOOD IN THE FOUR SELECTED COUNTRIES

The operational framework outlined in Appendix C will be employed as an heuristic device for ordering a synthesis of the area studies of Chapters II, III, IV and V, which deal respectively with the organization and development of ice hockey during childhood in Sweden, Czechoslovakia, the Soviet Union and Canada. The framework will provide a vehicle for presenting abridged and synoptical comments which juxtapose, analyze and compare the organization and development of ice hockey during childhood in the four selected countries.

INFLUENCES UPON THE ORGANIZATION AND DEVELOPMENT OF ICE HOCKEY IN THE SELECTED COUNTRIES

Ice hockey has emerged in recent years as a leading international sporting endeavor and as a forum for displaying the various instrumental ends of representative sport which are pursued in the various countries. Although each of the selected countries appears to have provided a fertile environment for ice hockey, there seem to be a variety of approaches and solutions to the challenges presented in the organization and development of ice hockey.

In each of the four countries ice hockey seems deeply rooted in the sporting tradition and is presumed to serve a functional role within society. Ice hockey appears to be functional in serving various instrumental ends within the following areas: ideology, politics, education, social life and organization, culture, economics and entertainment. The particular constellation of instrumental ends present in a country varies with the particular influences present in each country.

> Hockey, like all aspects of physical culture and sports in the Soviet Union, is closely tied to the social and political ideology of the country, that is, it operates instrumentally in the improvement of health, labour productivity, and State defensive capabilities of citizens, while still functioning as a game.[1]

In addition to the foregoing ends, the socialist model for sport and physical culture in the Soviet Union and Czechoslovakia aspires towards other outcomes such as international sporting glory, citizenship, all-round, harmonious mental and physical development, socialization and education in communism, maintaining social order and promoting politically-approved leisure activities and physical culture pursuits.[2] A key to understanding the instrumental expectations surrounding sport and physical culture in the socialist countries lies in the total state involvement in aspects of encouraging, planning, funding, organizing, directing and controlling such endeavor. Athletes are expected to be appropriate role models for the particular ends desired by the state; thus sporting endeavor is manipulated to produce desired outcomes in line with state policy.

In Sweden and Canada governmental authorities have not assumed such direct and total control over sport. Government interest and involvement in sport seems to be more evident and historically accepted in Sweden than in Canada; however, neither country has normally intervened in a manner as comprehensive or as direct as is the case in the Soviet Union or Czechoslovakia.

Sporting endeavor in Sweden, which is articulated as "voluntary sports activities," is ostensibly encouraged by some governmental assistance through financial support to provide more opportunity for participation in healthy leisure-time activity. This participation in turn encourages an elite to rise and succeed in international events as a reinforcement for increased mass participation.[3] Success in international competition is seen as a vehicle for useful propaganda, but governmental direction and control of sporting endeavor in Sweden has not proceeded to such an extent that sporting events or sportsmen are manipulated to serve state-dictated ends. To this date it appears that the sports governing bodies in Sweden have aligned with governmental positions on questions involving international relations and it appears that sporting officials and competitors have tacitly accepted their role as representatives of "the Swedish way."

Canada has not been as involved in international competition as the three other countries and this may be a prominent factor in the relative lack of understanding of and concern with the role of international competition as an extension of things Canadian. Sporting endeavor has, until very recently, been left by governmental officials and agencies to voluntary and private enterprise interests. Recent international developments and persistent domestic concerns have prompted some action from governmental sources. This action has not evolved towards governmental control or direction of sport in a measure which is comparable to the socialist model. Currently financial assistance is provided to sports-governing bodies and coordinating agencies. The most recent development has been the appointment of a Secretary of State (as Minister of Sport) charged with responsibility for sporting endeavor. The uneven pattern of governmental support has largely left sport outside governmental concern although this appears to be progressively changing. Voluntary interests and private enterprise interests have been allowed to pursue their own affairs without much regard for articulation with national interests. National interests have in fact not been defined, so little government direction has been provided which might supersede the idealized participant-centered outcomes, such as physical, social, moral and intellectual development through participation in sport; and the organization-centered outcomes, such as generating revenue, providing entertainment, providing "wholesome" activity (that is, activity designed to achieve societally-desirable outcomes), providing specialty occupations, and other vested-interest outcomes which are germane to the particular sponsoring organization.

Notwithstanding the different extent of governmental intervention in sporting endeavor among the four countries, they all share in elevating sporting participation towards an identifiable occupation within the division of labor in their country's social organization. The role of sportsman or athlete exists presumably because of the function sport plays in attaining societally-desired instrumental ends. Participation in sport is strongly encouraged and rewarded within the four countries. The extent of reward varies in accordance with the nature of the particular ends and the extent of success. Athletes in all four countries are lavished with societal attention, monetary or material reward, and access to a station and social status much in excess of the respective societal norms.

In the Soviet Union and Czechoslovakia sportsmen appear to be moulded in a planned development process which lays considerable stress on ideological and moral correctness. The socialization process seems shaped by Pavlovian behavioristic psychology and a social learning-social control viewpoint which is designed to bring individual behavior into conformity with the desired role model for sportsman and citizen. The basic assumption appears to be that the developing individual can and should be moulded to serve the particular valuation and instrumental ends dictated by state authorities. Although state authorities in the USSR and Czechoslovakia presumably operate in much the same manner, there appear to be noteworthy differences in the behavior sanctioned in the socialization process and product of the two countries.

Stereotyping national character is a risky procedure; there appear, however, to be significant differences in the playing style and conduct of the ice hockey players during competition. This profile is presumed to reflect the different valuation and behavior sanctioned by the respective nations. Soviet ice hockey players, for example, have been stereotyped by statements imputing stoicism, collectivism, conformity, external toughness, coolness, discipline and endurance. These qualities seem to be present not only in the public facade of the players but also in the stereotypic national character of the larger Soviet society.[4] Similar linkages between the expectations for the role model of the ice hockey player and the stereotypic national constellation of valuation and conduct seem plausible in Czechoslovakia, Sweden and Canada, and seem to contribute to rich contrasts in playing style and conduct of individual athletes and teams during international competition.

The following items may be selected to illustrate the contrasts referred to above. Sweden, Czechoslovakia and the Soviet Union presumably attach considerable importance to discipline and self-control in the playing style and conduct of their ice hockey players. In this respect Canada provides an exceptional profile which in part seems influenced by Freudian behavioral assumptions. Fisticuffs, expressions of hostility, retaliation and cleansing by catharsis are more-or-less accepted and/or expected conduct within the North American professional game. These behaviors also occur in the play of Canadians internationally, whereas the European teams do not normally exhibit this orientation in their playing style. A second, related diffefence may be seen in the overt expression of emotions and reaction to developments in the game emanating from opponents or officials. The role of the individual would seem to be a third area providing contrast in playing styles among the four countries. Emphasis upon the individual seems most pronounced in the Canadian playing style and least evident in the Czechoslovakian and Soviet playing styles. A somewhat balanced approach indicating both individual and team play orientations seems to be present in Sweden.

Other variables which contribute to contrasting playing styles and norms of conduct among the four countries could be elaborated to illustrate the different valuation and behavior sanctioned by the respective nations. A more exhaustive and definitive statement linking playing styles and conduct with the apparent valuation present in particular nations is seen by the writer to be a large topic in itself, so it will be left at the stage of providing an indication of some differences which seem to be culturally-linked.

Ice hockey has emerged as a major international competitive sport with competitions at three levels of play: A Pool, B Pool and C Pool. All four countries selected for study currently participate in the A Pool and have done so ever since they entered international competition. Canada has the longest history of involvement with ice hockey and until the advent of the Soviet Union into international play was relatively unchallenged. Czechoslovakia and Sweden also have a longer history of involvement in international competition than the Soviet Union. Since 1954, when the Soviet Union formally entered international competition the rivalry has been a four-way struggle for supremacy with the Soviet Union emerging as the most successful competitor. The intense rivalry has stimulated a number of developments which are most pronounced within the three European nations. Unified development programs, streamlined delivery systems and rationalized and intensive training programs have evolved in the constant effort to finish first in the annual World Championships or the quadrennial Winter Olympic Games.

Geographical location, ethnocentricity and a relatively inward-looking, isolationist view seem to have kept Canada out of the mainstream of the evolution of the game of ice hockey. Canada has been more isolationist than the three European nations in the extent of its involvement in international competition and in adapting to changed conditions in international ice hockey, in innovation and in its interest in international play. This was particularly the case prior to 1972 and the USSR National Team Summit Series with the National Hockey League professional team. Since 1972 in Canada a progressive involvement in international play has developed and an internal restlessness has tended to encourage relatively rapid change through experimentation and innovation.

In contrast to Canada, the three European nations are constantly seeking an innovation or formula which will ensure superiority. This pursuit has encouraged a close surveillance of what is occurring in all sports in all nations. As a result, there is much diffusion and cross-fertilization of ideas and consequently many common features in programming exist in Europe. The importance of gaining superiority in the arena of representative sport has reinforced and apparently exaggerated the role of ice hockey and all sport in the scheme of human endeavor in the various nations.

Ice hockey apparently is the leading winter sport in media coverage and spectator interest in all four countries. In Sweden, Czechoslovakia and Canada ice hockey is the dominant winter sport in respect of participant numbers, while in the USSR cross-country skiing holds that distinction. In the European nations football (soccer) engages the greatest number of active participants overall, whereas in Canada ice hockey involves the greatest number of active participants.

All four countries have institutionalized sport and ice hockey in the sense that there is an organization and bureaucratic network established to organize and administer ice hockey. In some measure all four ice hockey governing organizations lack real power to control the sport in its internal and external relations. In the socialist countries the ice hockey governing bodies are shadowed and directed by the real power, the Communist Party, and by certain powerful sports clubs and officials. In Canada the situation is complicated by rival and varied interest groups to the extent that the real power lies outside the grasp of the Canadian Amateur Hockey Association. The players' union and private entrepreneurs appear to hold more sway than the C.A.H.A. The Swedish Ice Hockey Federation, while not having rival groups or "puppet" status, by the nature of its charter does not seem able to fully control some situations.

The socialist model for sport, as outlined in the chapters on Czechoslovakia and the Soviet Union and earlier in this chapter, places the major role of sport within the domain of the state. The organization, coordination, direction and control of ice hockey, as of all sport, rests with the central organization. The role of educational institutions, youth-serving associations and organizations and industrial and labor organizations is subsumed and orchestrated by the state-appointed body. Sports clubs organized around labor unions and special interest groups such as student associations play the leading role in the state-centralized and supported sports delivery system. Facilities, trained leaders, equipment, supplies and operating expenses are made available to elite sport through the sports club route. Mass sport is officially encouraged but the realities of the current situation in Czechoslovakia and the Soviet Union suggest that resources are being deployed almost exclusively toward elite sport.

Sweden also operates through sports clubs in the delivery system for sports, but there are a number of features present in the nature of the Swedish sports club movement which are different from those existing in Czechoslovakia and the USSR. Although the government provides base-level funding for assistance with facilities, youth participation incentives and assistance for some operating expenses, the sports clubs have not been directed or controlled by state authorities. The sports clubs in Sweden have evolved primarily from individuals banding together to provide sporting opportunity for themselves and others. There are sports clubs organized by organizations and associations such as student groups, but they are in a minority. Funding for sports clubs is primarily derived from the fund-raising efforts of volunteers who are interested in sport. Essentially the entrepreneur model in Sweden of sports club financing is a cooperative, collective effort. The membership achieves solvency through many fund-raising schemes which the sports clubs pursue, and through gate receipts and limited state assistance. Basically the Swedish sports club movement appears to be a groundswell movement (people to state), while the sports clubs in the socialist countries are organized more from the top down (state to people). Despite these differences in the nature of the sports clubs, the role of the sports clubs in the delivery system for sport is relatively similar.

The Canadian sports delivery system is premised, as in Sweden, on the role of the volunteer, on an entrepreneur model and on a groundswell of effort from the individual or collective of individuals. Canada does not appear to have a close parallel to the nature of the sports clubs in the European nations. There are sports clubs in Canada, but they tend to be more limited and restrictive in nature. Some Canadian sports clubs are based upon a cross-section of ages supported by club membership fees; however these clubs tend to be organized for only one or a small number of relatively exclusive sports such as golf, tennis, badminton, squash, curling, swimming or some combination of the above sports. Team sports such as ice hockey are nurtured in a framework of community-based effort in the early years of a participant's playing career. In some Canadian population centers, such as Toronto, sports clubs organized primarily for ice hockey will reach into the childhood time period, but for the most part sports clubs organized around ice hockey do not cater to players below the Bantam age division and players of less than the top play classification; A, AA or the equivalent. Community groups and sports clubs usually receive some, although normally very limited, assistance from municipal authorities. The amount of the assistance appears to be less than in Sweden, however, and certainly not comparable to what sports clubs receive in Czechoslovakia and the Soviet Union.

Educational institutions have a varying but somewhat common involvement in the ice hockey delivery system in all four countries. In the Soviet Union the Children's and Youth Sports Schools are financed by the Ministry of Education as part of the *Komsomol* youth movement program. Although the CYSS are a second tier of sports schools for producing ice hockey players in the USSR, their role seems to be more prominent than any other educational instituion's involvement within the four countries. The *Komsomol* sponsorship of the Golden Puck Tournament and Courtyard Program provides further indication of involvement from the educational sector. In all instances the programs sponsored by the *Komsomol* are secondary and more mass-participation oriented than the club sports school development route for Soviet elite ice hockey players.

The situation in Czechoslovakia, where one-seventh of the total number of registered players play school hockey or hockey organized by the Pioneer youth organization, does not seem to significantly differ from the observation which applies to the USSR, wherein school ice hockey is clearly seen as a secondary and less direct route in the development of elite players. School ice hockey exists in some areas of Sweden and Canada but in both countries school programs occupy a secondary position in the scheme of elite player development. In Sweden school ice hockey is being supplanted by sports club programming, so the role of educational institutions is greatly reduced. The Canadian situation has remained roughly the same over a number of years. There have been some locales moving out of school-based ice hockey but the net numbers seem to remain basically unchanged because other locales have increased school-based programming.

Involvement in ice hockey programming by youth organizations is limited to the two socialist countries. The *Komsomol* in the USSR and the Pioneers in Czechoslovakia have worked through their respective educational institutions to involve children and youth in socially desirable activities including ice hockey. The thrust of the youth organizations has been directed primarily towards social, political, and ideological outcomes and less towards an ice hockey development outcome.

Industrial and commercial concerns and labor unions seem to be playing significant roles in the four delivery systems but in varying ways and degrees of involvement. In Czechoslovakia and the Soviet Union industrial and commercial concerns, labor unions and security and armed forces bodies all organize the sports clubs which comprise the main route of ice hockey development for elite players. In both countries, but particularly in the USSR, the armed forces sports clubs appear to be the best endowed and the most likely to provide the trendsetter role in the sports club movement.

Industrial and commercial concerns contribute extensively to the support of sports clubs in Sweden. Extensive advertising is done through monies contributed towards sponsorship of sports club programs. Some sports clubs are, or are almost, wholly-sponsored by industrial or commercial concerns, so reliance upon volunteer fund-raising, fees and grants is minimized. Labor unions and armed forces are not involved in the sports club movement in Sweden. Student associations from higher education institutions are active in all three European countries and make a major contribution to sport for their members but not for child or youth development in ice hockey. Notwithstanding the increase in commercial and industrial sponsorship and advertising revenue, particularly within the commercialization and professionalization of the top Swedish clubs and teams, the major foundation for most Swedish sports clubs still seems to be volunteer effort.

Commercial and industrial support of ice hockey development in Canada is fairly extensive through contributions routed through sponsorship or partial sponsorship of community and club teams. Labor unions, student assocations and the armed forces do not play much of a role in the ice hockey development route in Canada.[5] The main development route is normally through geographically-based community teams, elite ice hockey and sport association teams and subsequently through apprentice professional and professional teams.

Individual initiative by volunteers operating through community leagues and elite sports associations comprises the foundation of Canadian ice hockey. As previously noted, this reliance upon volunteers is also the hallmark of the Swedish ice hockey system. In both countries family units shoulder the majority of the responsibility and cost for supporting the young ice hockey player. Costs for equipment and fees for membership, registration, ice rental and so on are borne by most families. Family units in Czechoslovakia and the Soviet Union expect to cover the cost of equipment and a minimal fee for sport club membership. Overall the fees in Czechoslovakia and the Soviet Union are minimal (less than the equivalent of one dollar) in comparison with the direct costs incurred in Sweden and Canada. In relative terms, however, the cost of equipment in the Soviet Union seems at least as high as in the other countries.

One of the obstacles facing ice hockey development in the Soviet Union appears to be the lack of availability of playing equipment. This seems a very real problem even though participants "make do" with what they can obtain. There do not appear to be enough skates or sticks to meet the interest present in the Soviet Union. The problem is more acute when other articles of equipment are considered. The other three countries are all in the position of exporting ice hockey equipment so equipment supply is not a difficulty in their programs. In all three countries the variety, quantity and quality of equipment is superior to that available in the Soviet Union.

Table 6.1 outlines the number of artificial ice surfaces available for ice hockey play in the respective countries. It may be noted that the disparity in facilities between Canada and the other three countries seems substantial, when measured in terms of artificial ice facilities. Although figures for the number of natural ice playing surfaces are not available, and it is virtually impossible to determine the precise number of such outdoor playing surfaces, it seems reasonable to the writer on the basis of observation and extrapolation to state that Canada also possesses many more outdoor playing surfaces than the other countries.[6] The climate of the northerly portions of the Soviet Union and Sweden and the mountain regions of Czechoslovakia sustains natural ice, but the number of playing surfaces in the respective countries does not seem to begin to approach the number present in Canada.

Table 6.1

Number and Type of Artificial Ice Surfaces

Country	Indoor	Outdoor
Soviet Union	57	5
Czechoslovakia	44	58
Sweden	79	141
Canada	2100*	-

*Estimated number.

With the construction of artificial ice playing facilities ice hockey has migrated to new areas of warmer climate in all the countries. The area in which most ice hockey players are developed in each country appears to remain where natural ice can be sustained by the climate. In Canada, Sweden and Czechoslovakia ice hockey is played in all geographical areas, whereas in the USSR this is not the case. Overall, Canada has had the advantage of a relatively favorable climate, a long history of participation in ice hockey and development of numerous facilities to service and fuel the interest in ice hockey. Early on in the history of ice hockey in Sweden and Czechoslovakia, outdoor facilities--first natural and later artificial--were extensively used. Many of these outdoor artificial facilities are still being built in both countries as officials there indicate these facilities to be the most efficient. Although the USSR has a relatively favorable climate they have not had the history of involvement in ice hockey nor the opportunity or inclination to give priority to facility construction with the apparent result that the extent of opportunity for participation is curtailed. In all countries, interest in playing runs far ahead of available facilities.

When the socio-cultural and ecological considerations are combined and placed in perspective a number of speculative links between these and their apparent effects on the ice hockey system may be drawn. Influences such as valuation, resources and role of various groups seem to be key considerations in producing the backcloth for ice hockey in the four countries. The particular montage in a country provides contrasts which appear to exist in the approaches to ice hockey documented in the earlier chapters on the area studies.

GENERAL OUTLINE OF THE ICE HOCKEY SYSTEMS

As mentioned earlier, ice hockey has been institutionalized in all four countries. Each has a nation-wide governing organization set up for ice hockey but the power and the position of the organization varies with each country. The Swedish Ice Hockey Federation occupies a relatively unchallenged position as the single governing body for ice hockey and generally seems able to establish policy and govern in a manner acceptable to its constituents. Czechoslovakia and the Soviet Union also have only one ice hockey governing body, but in each case the Czechoslovakian Ice Hockey Federation and the Soviet Ice Hockey Federation are shadowed by Communist Party appointees who are the real decision-makers. Decisions once made carry more authority in the Czechoslovakian and Soviet situations because the power is derived from the governing Communist Party. In Sweden and Canada the Swedish Ice Hockey Federation and the Canadian Amateur Hockey Association operate without direct governmental involvement and do not directly execute government policy. The two organizations seem, however, to operate mainly in line with governmental sports and foreign relations policies.

Essentially it seems that government allows the sports governing bodies in Sweden and Canada to proceed with their spheres of activity unless serious concern is raised about the manner in which the sport is governed or about the organization's external relations (including success in international competition and/or persistent problems in relationships with other organizations).[8] Compared with the other countries Canada appears to have undergone more organizational turmoil in recent years. While the Czechoslovakian and Soviet Ice Hockey Federations operate basically as "puppet" or front organizations without real power, the Canadian Amateur Hockey Association has been somewhat ineffective because of the nature of its power base which is founded upon diverse, and in some instances, opposing factions within the Association, and because of the relatively powerful position of professional ice hockey which dominates the Canadian ice hockey scene.[9]

In effect, Canada does not have a single ice hockey organization which is comparable to the Federations of the other countries. The National Hockey League, World Hockey Association and Canadian Major Junior Hockey League appear to operate on the basis of vested interest. As a result the C.A.H.A. is placed in an accommodative stance which renders it relatively powerless in the larger scheme of Canadian ice hockey. Added to the list of competing ice hockey interests is Hockey Canada and the National Hockey League Players' Association which hold potentially very important roles with respect to directions taken in Canadian ice hockey.

Within the national ice hockey bodies of all four countries there is an official and/or a subgroup responsible for minor ice hockey. Matters such as player development, curriculum, leadership development, relations to other levels of the ice hockey system and so on seem to constitute a shared orientation. Additionally, the age groupings for training and particularly for competition reflect a shared outlook.

The development route for ice hockey players in Czechoslovakia, Sweden and the Soviet Union is basically the same. Sports clubs fulfill the major role in the delivery system from a child's first entry into ice hockey through to representative town and city sport. In Canada the development route for top players in most locales is through teams sponsored by community leagues or associations, subsequently to teams sponsored by ice hockey associations, which in turn feed top players into junior or apprentice professional teams that comprise the talent pool for professional ice hockey interests.[10]

The development process and the selection procedure, which differentiates top, elite stream, players from less talented, mass stream participants, are directly influenced by the operation of the socio-cultural and ecological factors outlined in previous chapters and earlier in this chaper. In all four countries talented players generally receive a disproportionately high share of resources (measured in terms of trained leadership, facilities, time, emphasis, equipment, supplies, organizational concern and budget). The availability of these resources is particularly telling on the quantity and quality of mass stream ice hockey played. In Czechoslovakia and the Soviet Union, despite propaganda stressing the role and importance of mass participation, the majority of resources are directed towards production of elite stream athletes. Czechoslovakia seems handicapped in resources because of the influence of a warm climate which will not sustain enough natural ice to complement the specially-constructed facilities for ice hockey. The Soviet Union seems blessed with appropriate climate but appears to be handicapped in resources more because of lack of artificial ice facilities, equipment and budget. Both Sweden and Canada, on the other hand, appear to be blessed in terms of favorable climate for ice hockey and endowed with resource allocation priorities which have created no apparent relative lack of resources.

Modified principles of "natural selection" and "survival of the fittest" normally seem to prevail in determining the survivors at each age level and classification of play.[11] Casualties or refugees from the selection process seem to have more opportunity to continue to play in a classification of play which is closer to the top elite stream classification of play in Canada and Sweden; and conversely, less opportunity in the Soviet Union and Czechoslovakia. The boundary between the elite stream and mass stream in Canada and Sweden apparently is less precipitous and definitive than is the case in the Soviet Union and Czechoslovakia. Additionally, and aligned with the previous observation, the boundaries between the elite stream and mass stream seem more permeable in Canada and Sweden than in the Soviet Union and Czechoslovakia. These observations appear to be directly related to the availability of resources, particularly indoor artificial ice facilities. Officials in all countries share in the desire to construct additional facilities so that more participants could be serviced to a higher level of challenge.

Table 6.2

Number of Ice Hockey Players and Population in Sweden, Czechoslovakia, the Soviet Union and Canada in 1974-75

Country	Number of Players Registered with Federation	Estimated Total Numbers of Players in Country*	Population of Country
Sweden	200,000	250,000	8,000,000
Czechoslovakia	74,921	85,000	14,700,000
USSR	604,000	900,000- 3,300,000	250,000,000
Canada	322,000	750,000	22,000,000

*This category includes both players registered with the Federation and an estimated number of unregistered players who are playing ice hockey in the country.

Table 6.2 outlines the number of players playing ice hockey in the four countries in 1974-75. Relative to the total base of population Canada and Sweden present the strongest participation profiles, approximately one player per twenty-nine point three citizens (1:29.3) and approximately one player per thirty-two citizens (1:32), respectively.[12] Although many similarities in geography and climate seem present among Sweden, Canada and the Soviet Union, the Soviet Union does not appear to present as strong a participation ratio (1:75.8). Factors such as the relatively short history of ice hockey in the USSR, emphasis upon elite ice hockey, and lack of facilities and equipment are presumed to be influential in this situation. Czechoslovakia, although presenting what seems to be the weakest participation ratio (1:172.9) when profiled using the estimated total number of players, is actually in a relatively better position compared to the Soviet Union when the participation ratio is determined using only the number of registered players in relation to the total population. That is, under this method of calculation, Czechoslovakia has a ratio of 1:196 whereas the USSR shows 1:413.7. Participation ratios present interesting take-off points for speculating in gross terms on the relative strengths of involvement in ice hockey in the various countries.

Illustration 6.1 presents a composite view of the estimated profile of the various ice hockey systems. It may be noted that in terms of sheer numbers the Soviet and Canadian ice hockey systems are relatively similar. The major exception lies in the apparently large number of participants in the Soviet Union who continue to play ice hockey after age nineteen. Accepting the Soviet information indicates that whereas the Canadian system continues to be progressively selective after age twelve, the Soviet system, while being selective from age thirteen to age sixteen, appears to retain more participants

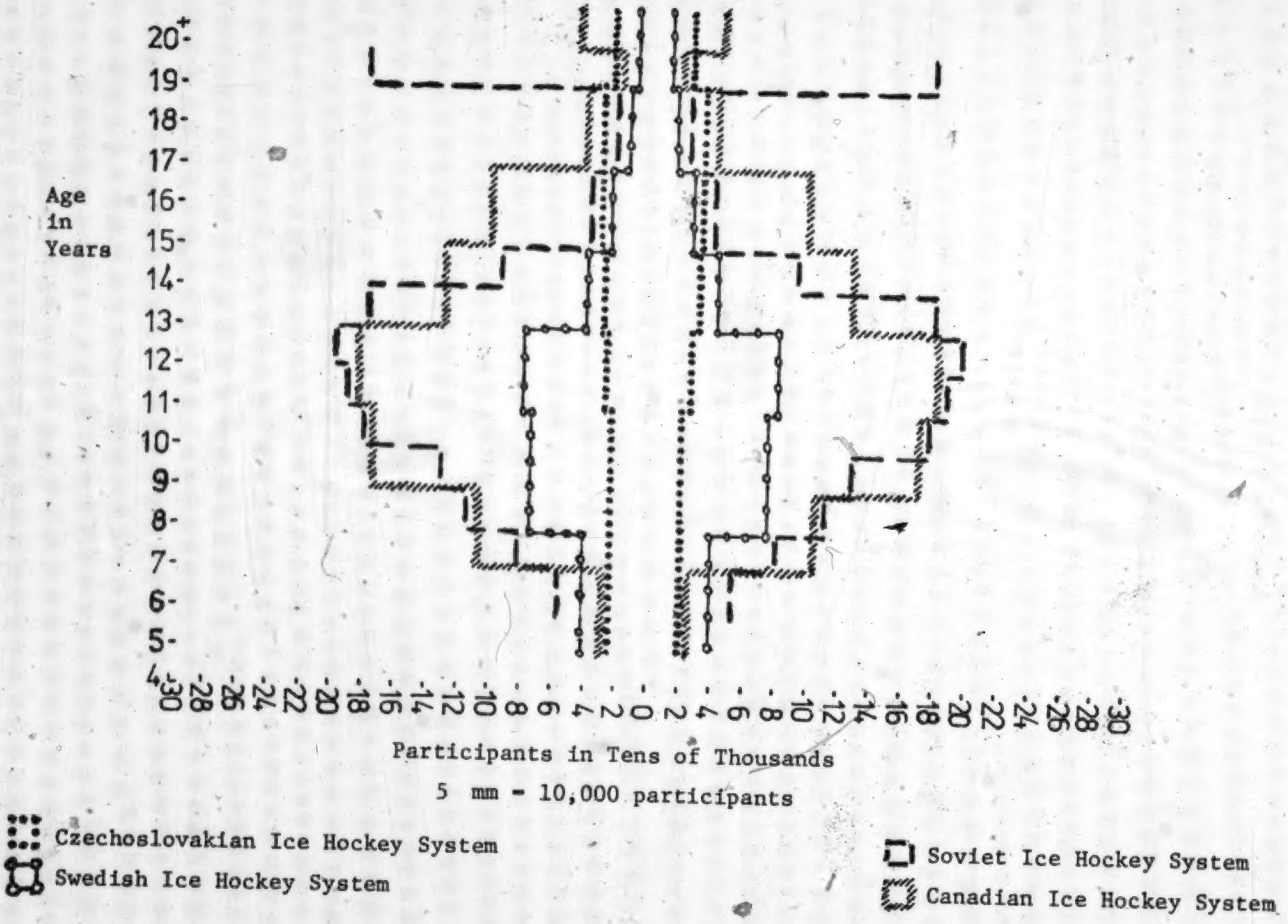


Illustration 6.1

Estimated Profiles of Ice Hockey Systems in Four Countries after age sixteen. In Illustration 6.1 this phenomenon seems exaggerated by the method of illustration, but the comparative profile seems evident. Both systems appear to grow in numbers until age twelve (in Canada) or thirteen (in USSR), and then taper progressively as previously mentioned.

Sweden appears to share this feature as well. The Swedish profile grows and holds participants until age thirteen, at which point there seems to be a significant tapering in the participation profile. In all three systems this progressive reduction in numbers of participants after age twelve or thirteen reflects the operation of the selection process. Illustration 6.1 may be interpreted to reflect an encouragement of participants in the three countries up until age twelve or thirteen, then a trend toward retention of only the better players. The selection process does not start at age twelve or thirteen although the illustration appears to encourage this observation. In reality, there seems to be a fluid or transitory condition up to age twelve or thirteen, during which some children are selected out while other children start to play the game, so the gross numbers continue to grow or at least seem to remain relatively constant.

Czechoslovakia seems to present a quite different profile, both for its relatively small numbers and for the apparent indication of a fairly constant number of participants from age five years up to and including players at the senior level (nineteen years and older) of participation. The bulge out to age thirteen and constriction thereafter does not seem to occur in Czechoslovakia. If the information from Czechoslovakia is accepted, then proportionate to the total number of participants in the system, a relatively large number of participants are playing ice hockey after nineteen years of age. This seems interesting as it appears to encourage the notion that a very high percentage of participants remain playing in the system after their initial selection. More comment should await consideration of the profile on the elite stream of ice hockey because the Czechoslovakian system has proportionally more elite players than the other systems. In other words, more of the resources appear to be committed to the elite ice hockey stream and fewer to support or servicing of the mass ice hockey stream.

ELITE ICE HOCKEY STREAM

Talented ice hockey players are advanced along the delivery system in different ways in the four countries. Different theories and practices are addressed to the common task of developing players for the top levels of competition, whether it be international or professional. Overall, there seem to be a number of similarities in the midst of many differences. Illustration 6.2 provides a comparative view of the estimated profiles of the elite ice hockey stream in the four countries. It may be noted that the Soviet Union appears to present the most compact profile. In Chapter IV the term, ultra-elite stream of development, was used to indicate the overall imporetance of club sports schools attached to Superior League teams. The single solid line centered in Illustration 6.2 represents the players being developed in the club sports schools. Also in the Soviet portion of the profile are the Children's and Youth's Sports Schools

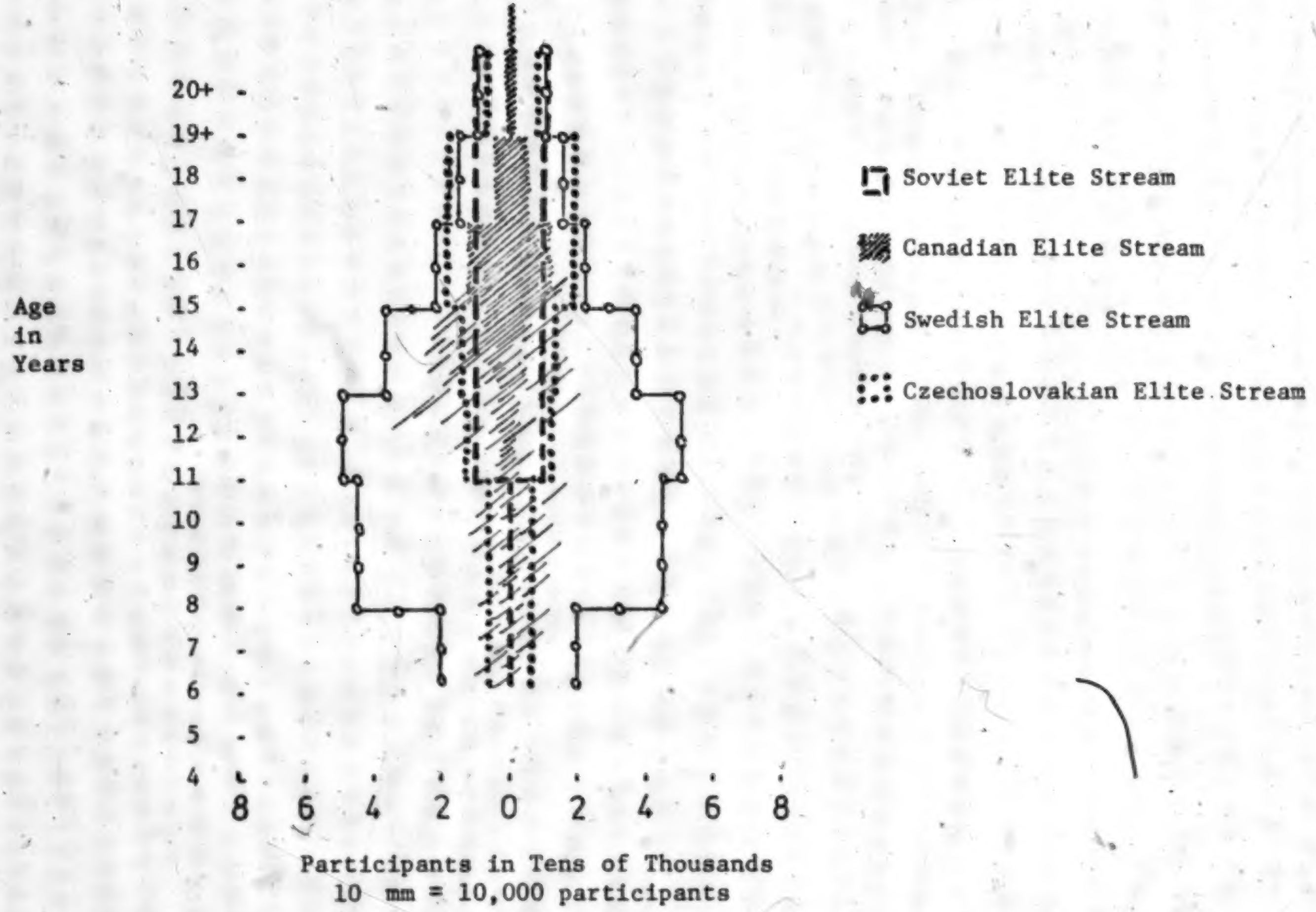


Illustration 6.2

Estimated Profiles of Elite Ice Hockey Stream in Four Countries represented by the solid blacked-in portion of the illustration which stretches from age ten to age eighteen; and the Junior Division which runs parallel to the CYSS representation in the adjacent white area.

The Soviet ice hockey system appears to be the most selective and intensive delivery system. In large measure this is presumed to reflect the paucity of facilities and equipment in the USSR. Once selected as a candidate for one of the prestigious club sports schools, the player is placed in a "hot-house" environment for development up to the Superior League. Competition for places in the club sports schools seems keen and serves to reinforce the desirability of obtaining and maintaining membership, as well as the related outcome of serious pursuit of skill development and continuation in the development process. The CYSS are apparently a second development route which is not as selective, as competitive, or as successful in producing ice hockey players.

The Czechoslovakian profile appears to relate most closely to the apparent Soviet profile. Both countries appear to lend credence to the effectiveness and efficiency of their selection procedure in developing a relatively small number of players through to become top international players. Most of the Czechoslovakian resources seem to be channelled in support of sports club athletes. The Czechoslovakian Ice Hockey Federation information points to what seems to be an all-or-none situation in which, with the exception of some Pioneer and school ice hockey, the majority of players up to age nineteen are in sports clubs in the elite stream of development.[13] It seems self-evident that some of these clubs would be more effective in elite player development than others. Their philosophy, leadership and resources seem more dedicated to the task than is the case in other sports clubs, which seem less able to produce elite players. It is not possible to determine the number or percentage of sports clubs which are most productive in Czechoslovakia and therefore akin to the Soviet club sports schools attached to the Superior League teams. It seems that most Elite Federal League and National League, and a few Divisional League sports clubs constitute the group of most productive Czechoslovakian sports clubs. Use of full-time trainers and ready access to ice time appear to be strong determinants in producing skilled players, and both these variables are present in the most productive sports clubs.

Sweden and Canada seem to have many more players in the talent pool which might be considered the elite stream. As previously pointed out, the boundaries between the elite stream and mass stream seem less-defined, less disparate and more permeable in Canada and Sweden than in Czechoslovakia and the Soviet Union. In both Sweden and Canada it seems evident from Illustration 6.2 that progressive reduction in numbers occurs from age thirteen onwards. In reality some players playing for top sport club teams in Sweden appear to have a better opportunity to make the top levels of play than others. These top sports clubs do not seem to be limited primarily to those having *Elitserien* or Division I teams. Geographical location, as in northern Sweden, with access to natural ice seems to have been a key factor in the background of most of the current group of top players in Sweden.[14]

The situation in Canada seems less clear. Generally it seems that hockey players develop through participation in top age class or representative teams, but there does not seem to be a direct linkage which precludes the emergence of players from lower classes of play. The phenomenon of the late maturing or developing ice hockey player who blossoms into a top adult players may be identified in the biographies of some professional players. More commonly, however, top players in Canada appear to have benefitted from years of experience gained in representative teams.

Generally it seems that officials in all four nations believe that children should enter into ice hockey at a fairly early age in order to enhance their chances of developing into top players. There are dissenting opinions in all the countries, but these opinions do not appear to be halting the common trend towards earlier participation, training and competition. Experimental programs in the Central House of the Red Army Sports Club (*TsSKA*) seem to be in the vanguard of this trend. Testing of four year-olds for "speed-strength quality," ice hockey programming which includes six year-olds, and *TsSKA*'s successful record appear to be encouraging other Soviet club sports schools to start earnest training earlier.[15] Some sports clubs in the three European nations and some communities in Canada provide ice hockey for children aged six or younger. The more common body of practice in all countries appears to be directed at having boys begin ice hockey by age eight and most certainly by age ten.

The specific entry age and conditions, selection procedure and type of programming appears to vary considerably from country to country.

Specific evidence of children entering ice hockey at age four may be found but, as mentioned previously, the dominant profile is for an older starting age. A variety of screening procedures and criteria for selecting children in ice hockey seem to be in use, including: proficiency in skating, proficiency in other basic skill-techniques, ability to play the game, interest and motivation, coachability, potential for development, predictive testing and screening, personal relationship to ice hockey officials and situational realities.

The most extensive screening process appears to occur at some selected sports clubs in Czechoslovakia and the USSR. *Sparta ČKD Praha* (Czechoslovakia) and *TsSKA* (Soviet Union) are two sports clubs in this category. Use of predictive tests for assessing coordination, speed, strength and skill-technique ability; games; physical attributes; parental profiles; and on-ice tests seem to be common aspects of the selection procedure. Although considerable attention in Europe, especially in the socialist countries, seems focussed upon prediction of athletic ability, most ice hockey players still appear to be selected on the basis of on-ice procedures.

Predictive testing may be seen as an attempt to rationalize the selection procedure by using resources more efficiently. It may also be seen in the light of "necessity being the mother of invention," because it serves as a useful, albeit less than ideal, tool for overcoming a lack of ice time. Dryland training and use of various complementary and supplementary experiences and means other than activities based upon use of ice have been used extensively in Europe to overcome pressure on the relatively few ice facilities. In large measure these innovations may simply reflect a coping with realities in resources, but they also appear to contribute to rationalization of the development process. The relatively consistent vertical profile of elite stream ice hockey in Czechoslovakia and the Soviet Union appears to be related to the early screening and identification of talent which occurs in these two countries.

Resources and philosophical influences appear to be keys to the nature of the child's first contact with organized ice hockey programming. The European sports clubs generally tend to place the beginning player in a skill learning and development environment typified by the *ishockeyskolän* in Sweden and the preparatory groups of Czechoslovakia and the USSR. Canada, on the other hand, tends to place children into a games-playing environment which may or may not be accompanied by an opportunity for skill learning and development in a practice or training environment. In the European sports club development model the main task is one of learning and developing the requisite skills for playing ice hockey; whereas in the Canadian games model, the children play the game of ice hockey with varying attention given to skill practice.

The European development model with its emphasis upon training (practice) sessions prevails at all levels of ice hockey from beginner to top level of play. Generally a ratio of three training sessions for each game played is maintained by most sports clubs. In some instances, especially in keen and aggressive programs and upper levels of play, the ratio may approach four training sessions per game, while in other programs the ratio may fall to only two training sessions per game.

The latter may occur for a variety of reasons, including: difficulty in obtaining facilities, programming for younger players, and/or less emphasis on overall program.

In Canada it appears that the ratio of training sessions to games is in reverse order, with one training session to two, three or four games. Individual circumstances determine the ratio of training sessions to games. Some influential factors seem to be: availability of ice, total number of games played, level of play, and orientation of team officials (traditional or reformist). In the last five years it appears that some European development ideas have penetrated the Canadian body of practice as there has been an increase in the number of training sessions and apparent increased use of ideas such as dry-land training. As a result, children entering the Canadian development process may be exposed to a program which reflects the professional, games orientation, the skill learning and development orientation, or the range of programming between, which has some mixture of these two polar orientations.

Swedish players below the senior age bracket tend to be involved in slightly more games and slightly fewer training sessions than their European counterparts. While the number of games does not seem to rival the number played in a parallel Canadian situation, the Swedish situation seems to be something of a mixture of two "ideal-types," a European model and a Canadian model.

The frequency and duration of training sessions; and the number, type and extent of competition for children eight years of age and younger in the *ishockeyskolän* (Sweden), preparatory groups

(Czechoslovakia and the Soviet Union) and Beginner and Tyke levels in reformist programs (Canada) seem fairly similar and comparable. Examination of the contents of Tables 2.6, 3.6, 4.5 and 5.10 indicates that players in Czechoslovakia and the Soviet Union, especially in the better programs, appear to train more frequently than players in parallel situations in Sweden and Canada.[16] It appears that the nature and extent of competition for children five to eight years old is similar in all countries, with the exception of Canada, where programs emphasizing the traditional orientation schedule numerous representative games. Canadian Tyke programs tend to schedule more games in place of training sessions.

A similar situation appears in programming for nine and ten year-old players where traditionally-oriented programs in Canada schedule more games and fewer training sessions than is the case in the other countries. Czechoslovakia, Sweden, the USSR and reform-oriented programs in Canada seem quite similar in the frequency and duration of training sessions and the number and types of games, although in the latter variable the Soviet Union and Canada (reform orientation) do not seem to schedule as many games nor to stress external competition as much for young players in the upper preparatory group and Mite group, respectively.

Training session and game variables in the eleven and twelve year-old bracket appear to be in general parallelism in the four countries, with the exception that participants in the traditional orientation of programming in Canada play more games than their counterparts.

Overall the games model for player development, which stresses more games with consequent lessening emphasis on training sessions, in traditionally-oriented Canadian programs seems to be the most prominent contrast in the juxtaposition of the training session and game variables. There are other differences but they are relatively minor and do not provide such a strong contrast.

When the actual program content is considered, on the basis of juxtaposition of Tables 2.3, 3.5, 4.4 and 5.6 (which outline the training program content in the four countries), there appear to be many shared ideas. Generally speaking, the ends or outcomes sought in children's programming seem common in the four countries. For instance; development of the basic skills (skating, puck control, goaltending), cultivation of a basic understanding of the game, ability to play the game, introduction to some basic play situations and acquaintance with some typical drills for skill-technique development are all treated by age thirteen.

Examination of tables on training program content seems to indicate common coverage of content and a roughly similar progression in developing the content. The common content and progression may be listed as follows: skating (initially only forward skating and later backward and specific refinements); stick and puck control (stickhandling, passing and pass receiving, and later shooting); keepaway (one versus one, one versus many), shinny (two versus two through many versus many) and low organization games for skill-technique development and game understanding; combination skill-technique drills (combining skating and passing, skating and passing with shooting);

goalkeeping positional play; situational play (one versus goalkeeper, one versus one, two versus goalkeeper, two-on-one, three-on-two, and so on); positional play (forward, defence) and some treatment of basic rules and systemic play (offensive team and defensive team play).

There are some variations in the program outcomes which are sought within specific age groupings. In Sweden, for example, goalkeepers receive basic training in goalkeeping fundamentals prior to leaving the *ishockeyskolän* (by age eight) whereas in Czechoslovakia this normally occurs in the older preparatory group (age nine and ten). Canadian children appear to be advanced into the requirements of game play and checking skills at an earlier age (five or six years) than are children in the other three countries (eight years). The predominance of the games model in Canada would seem influential in this situation. Programming in the European countries appears to delay competitive games until a basic grounding in skill-techniques and lead-up games is assimilated by the children. A noticeable feature of Beginner and Tyke ice hockey in Canada seems to be the number of poor quality skaters who play in the games. This occurrence seems to be avoided, for the most part, in Europe because children are taught the basic skills before they enter representative games. In fact, progression from the preparatory groups and *ishockeyskolän* into team groupings in many sports clubs is dependent upon demonstration of skill proficiency.

Basic rules seem to be treated in Canada and Sweden earlier than in Czechoslovakia and the Soviet Union. This seems related to the emphasis upon games play in the development process. Children in

Canadian ice hockey normally learn the "position and lane" approach to team play, which seems to be the basic Canadian conceptualization of the game of ice hockey.[17] The European style of play normally involves a "spatial and situational relationship" approach to the game; it seems, however, that only advanced players in C Boys (Sweden), *Mladsi Žáci* (Czechoslovakia) and Third Boys' teams (USSR) have rudiments of this approach introduced to them.[18] Trainers in the Soviet Union appear to advance players into this style of play more than do trainers in Czechoslovakia and especially Sweden. The latter two countries appear to place more emphasis upon positional play in the initial stages of systemic team play.

There appear to be other differences in the means of accomplishing the outcomes and ends of program content. Intra-country as well as inter-country differences in the basic methodology for teaching the skill-techniques, positional skills, and rudiments of situation and systemic play seem to be evident. Teaching skating, for example, may be used to illustrate differences in technique; that is, the "Swedish" style of a narrow recovery of the power leg, the "Czechoslovakian" and "Soviet" emphasis on compacted and lowered body position for agility skating, and the "Canadian" emphasis on a wide base and power striding action. These are not pure or ideal-types pertaining exclusively to the named countries. Trainers in all countries teach skating with stress on slightly different aspects and different progressions and overall there appears to be considerable cultural diffusion.

One major difference in program content, which appears to isolate Canadian programs from European programs of development, is the seemingly extensive use of dryland (or off-ice) training in Europe. Soviet, Czechoslovakian and Swedish trainers working in better programs appear to place considerable stress on dryland training as a complement or supplement to training sessions held on ice. Trainers in the Soviet Union and Czechoslovakia apparently use dryland training earlier and more frequently than do Swedish trainers working in the *ishockeyskolän* and D Boys hockey programs. In programs for eleven and twelve year-olds it seems that top trainers use dryland training with about the same emphasis in all three countires. In all cases, however, it seems evident that dryland training is used more extensively in Europe than in Canada, where only relatively isolated instances of this training are employed at any of the levels of ice hockey.

Eleven-month or year-round training is the ideal set in Europe for the development of ice hockey players. Children in top development programs in the USSR and Czechoslovakia are closer to this adult standard than are children in Sweden, where an eight or nine-month schedule seems more the case in better development programs.

Specific examples of some model programs and typical training sessions have been outlined in earlier chapters and will not receive further treatment in this chapter. Suffice to say that model programs seem to exist in all countries and that, conversely, examples of poor programming also exist in all countries. In retrospect, it seems that the most consistent standard of sound programming was found in Czechoslovakia. This may in part reflect the relatively organized state of development in Czechoslovakia wherein Czechoslovakian Ice Hockey Federation programs for leadership development and player development seem to be in use by most trainers in the country.

Czechoslovakia's development program, the unified training system, is guided by a comprehensive curriculum guide which apparently articulates player development from the beginning stages through to top level play. The Soviet Union also has a long-range development program, which, although apparently not as detailed or as all-embracing, does outline the development of players from ten to eighteen years when they are in CYSS programs. Canada and Sweden do not have curriculum guides as such; however, leadership development programs and certain widely-used publications tend to influence the respective national practices.

Curriculum guides and other programming aids appear to be useful tools in improving ice hockey delivery systems, but their importance does not seem nearly as great as the influence of model leadership. The single variable which appeared to influence the standard and effectiveness of development programming more than any other seemed to be leadership. Despite short-comings and difficulties in facilities, equipment, player ability and other conditions, programs which seemed to have sound leadership appeared to be accomplishing the best process and product results. Qualities of effective teaching such as interest, enthusiasm, knowledge, interpersonal skills and organization seemed to be important influences upon the participants in the programs reflecting model leadership. The background, training and experience of the better leaders varied on an intra-country as well as an inter-country basis. In every country the reputation of a particular sports club or team (as a particularly good or poor situation) seemed related to program leadership.

Mention has been made previously of the consistent standard of sound programming in Czechoslovakia. This occurrence seems related to the relatively advanced state of their leadership development programming both for full-time trainers and for part-time trainers who wish to be certified for training ice hockey players regardless of whether they are volunteers. In the other countries the leadership development programs do not appear to have had such a pervasive or persuasive effect. Czechoslovakian resources tend to be concentrated only upon developing elite stream players, resulting in what seemed to be a higher proportion of trained and/or full-time leaders working in ice hockey programming. Documentation of the number of full-time leaders and the extent of their training and experience was not possible in any of the countries. The combination of factors in Czechoslovakia, including; state support of sports clubs to hire full-time trainers, active and extensive leadership development programming and an almost singular dedication of resources to the development of elite players, seems influential in the apparent outcome of the Czechoslovakian delivery system.

The Soviet Union develops and supports trainers in nearly the same manner as Czechoslovakia but limitations in resources and the emerging nature of the state of development of ice hockey seem to have curtailed the number of trained and/or full-time leaders working in their ice hockey system. The small number of trained and/or full-time leaders seems to be one factor related to the relatively small elite stream in the Soviet Union. Sweden relies heavily, and Canada relies exclusively, upon the efforts of volunteers in their ice hockey programming for children. Although Sweden has programs to develop leaders which are comparable to those in Czechoslovakia and the USSR, the limited opportunity for securing such employment in Sweden seems to curtail the possibility of widespread use of trained leaders. In the absence of state support, full-time employment working with children seems limited to only a small number of sports clubs that have considerable resource and philosophical commitment to children's ice hockey. There are also leadership development programs for volunteers in Sweden but they, along with similar programs in Canada, seem to reach mainly the interested and committed trainers, while missing the majority of volunteers, many of whom would presumably benefit from exposure to such programs. A program comparable to the preparation of full-time trainers in ice hockey has evidently not been developed in Canada. The closest facsimile would be a physical educator who had a background and/or interest in ice hockey. While such people do exist there are apparently only rare possibilities for employment working in children's ice hockey and only then in the school system.

The development process for elite ice hockey players appears to be most systematically planned, supported and executed in Czechoslovakia. A combination of conditions topped by almost singular commitment of resources seems to establish a sound foundation for the development process. The Soviet Union appears to share many commonalities in theoretical orientation with Czechoslovakia, but realization of the same results as in Czechoslovakia seems curtailed by a less favorable constellation of conditions. The opportunity for Soviet children to participate in an elite development process comparable to that credited to Czechoslovakia seems restricted to a relatively small percentage of those in Soviet ice hockey. Only in the programs of the club sports schools, operationally defined as the ultra-elite ice hockey stream in the USSR, and in a few other elite stream situations does the Czechoslovakian standard seem to be approached or equalled. The *TsSKA* club sports school seems to be on a par with a number of sports club programs in Czechoslovakia, but there appear to be very few equivalents in the USSR to the *TsSKA* program whereas there seem to be very many Czechoslovakian equivalents. The mean of the overall standard of elite programming in the Soviet Union seems far below *TsSKA*, resulting in a less favorable view of the Soviet development process for children. The success of the Soviet ice hockey system in producing elite players is presumed to depend on factors other than a systematic and efficient development process during childhood. Included in these more influential factors seem to be intensive, "hot-house" training and development of a few talented athletes; hard work (as hard, or harder than in other countries); and a greater emphasis upon training the players in older age levels, particularly the junior and Masters' categories.

Despite the non-existence of a curriculum guide or formal statement blueprinting a systematic development of Swedish ice hockey, there appears to be a shared outlook on many facets of the development process in Sweden. The sports club programs for the *ishockeyskolän*, D Boys and C Boys teams seem generally well organized, efficient and operating about on par with the apparent Czechoslovakian standard. Sweden services many more participants than does Czechoslovakia with a program embracing both an elite stream and mass stream. Although Swedish children do not train as frequently or as intensively as their Czechoslovakian counterparts, elite players tend to exhibit a sound standard of skill and game play. Elite players surface and congregate on teams which play in the top categories, while other presumably less-talented players remain in lower categories. Overall, despite greater participant numbers, lack of an articulated guideline and full-time trained leadership, the foundation in the development process in Swedish ice hockey seems well laid.

The Canadian ice hockey system seems to parallel Sweden in a number of features, including: programming large numbers of participants from both streams in an all-embracing program; lacking development guidelines; lacking full-time trained leadership; and the movement of gifted players into differentiated programs which serve as an elite stream of ice hockey play. Canada appears to be set apart from Sweden and the other two European nations in one major feature of the development process. In Canada the basis of the development process appears to lie in playing games, whereas in Europe primary reliance is placed upon training sessions to accomplish technical preparation (skill-technique learning and practice) of the children. Canadian Mite and Pee Wee players generally seem to be more adept at playing games than their European counterparts. The dysfunction of this emphasis on game play seems to be comparatively less proficiency in skill-techniques at age twelve. The long-range effects of this difference remain open to speculation.

MASS ICE HOCKEY STREAM

Much of the previous section outlining the development process in the elite hockey stream may be seen to apply to a discussion of the mass ice hockey stream. The co-terminous boundaries of the elite and mass streams in the Canadian and Swedish ice hockey systems seems to indicate the interaction and anticipated similarities in the development process in the mass ice hockey stream.

Neither Canada nor Sweden appear to label or definitely identify a mass ice hockey stream. The lower classifications of the various categories of play tend to be a repository for less-talented participants and it is these classifications which will be identified as the mass ice hockey stream in the Canadian and Swedish ice hockey systems. The Soviet Union appears to be the only country which readily identifies a mass ice hockey stream. The Courtyard Program and Golden Puck Tournament were established as participation-oriented programs to service the interest in ice hockey in the USSR. Czechoslovakian officials identify the Pioneer and school ice hockey programs as participation route programs but they do not seem to glorify them as do the Soviets. If one were to accept, uncritically, Soviet information on the Courtyard Program and Golden Puck Tournament, it would seem that these mass participation programs are the most important programs in Soviet ice hockey (except perhaps for the National Team); that these programs are the foundation for Soviet ice hockey; that they serve to involve millions of participants; and that they are the developing ground for the next Kharlamov, Tretiak or other top player.

In reality, much of this seems to be pretense which is designed to perpetuate the fiction of egalitarianism in the area of sports programming. Programming for mass participation fares less well in every country than programming for development of elite players. Competition for resources seems to clearly favor elite stream programs. The extent of the disparity between the two types of programming varies with each country. In Sweden and Canada the gap between the two exists but not to the extent that seems prevalent in the USSR.

Generally speaking, participants in the mass ice hockey streams are those children who fail to make the grade in elite programs or those who are unable to participate in elite stream programming for whatever reason. In the Swedish and Canadian systems, less-talented or participation-oriented players gravitate to the lower classifications within the various categories of play. For example, in Canada less successful or less experienced participants tend to play in either the house league classification or a neighboring low-ranked classification.

Participants may enter the mass stream after being selected out of an elite stream program. This may occur at any age although it seems important to note that there tend to be fewer opportunities to participate in ice hockey after age thirteen, regardless of the nature of the programming. The second way of entering the mass stream seems to be during initial contact with ice hockey. Direct entry may occur at any age and seems dependent upon local conditions such as the nature and availability of programs and the entry skill of the participant. The earliest age at which a child enters the mass stream directly would be age four to seven, in Canada; age seven in Sweden and Czechoslovakia; and age eight in the USSR.

In the Canadian and Swedish ice hockey systems, participants in the mass programs (those operationally identified as the lower classifications of the various play categories) may participate in the various age divisions which are common to elite hockey; that is, Beginner, Tyke, Mite and Pee Wee in Canada, and D Boys and C Boys in Sweden. Participants in school boy ice hockey programs in Czechoslovakia, Canada and Sweden are organized in various ways, but normally in age groupings related to the school organization. In the Golden Puck Tournament competition is organized into two childhood age groupings; eight to ten years (local area competition only) and ten to twelve years (local through All-Union competition). In addition children apparently may enter Courtyard Programs at age six or seven, depending upon the availability of programming in their neighborhood.

The programming for mass stream ice hockey appears to feature less opportunity for training and competition, mainly because priority in resource allocation has been given to elite stream programs. In Canada and Sweden teams in the lower classifications of the various categories of play tend to fare better than do mass stream participants in the Golden Puck competition in the Soviet Union and the Pioneer program in Czechoslovakia. Earlier in the paper mention was made of the relative permeability of boundary, and less precipitous and disparate relationship between the elite stream and mass stream in Sweden and Canada as compared to the situation in the two socialist countries. This seems to be an important influence upon the nature and content of mass stream programming in Canada and Sweden where the programming tends to follow that which is completed in the elite stream and training sessions for mass stream participants seem to be dependent upon the classification of play. In the lowest classifications there may not be any scheduled opportunities for training, while participation in games only tends to be a common feature of the "pure-type" mass stream program. In the Golden Puck Tournament, for example, only games are scheduled and any training sessions are added evidently at the discretion of the participants. The number of games seems to be minimal unless a team schedules challenge matches on its own or becomes successful in advancing along a playdown format for competition.

Mass participation programs all seem to suffer in comparison with elite development programs in the area of program leadership, a situation which is particularly noticeable in the mass stream in the Soviet Union. The Golden Puck and courtyard programs are apparently based almost exclusively on the efforts of volunteers, for while there are some *Komsomol* organizers, they apparently are not normally ice hockey trainers. The situation in the Pioneer and school programs in Czechoslovakia appears to be the same. In Sweden the situation seems to be more equitable, because most of the trainers in sports club programming are volunteers. Volunteers run all programs in Canada as well but the inequity in these two countries appears to arise because first-time or inexperienced volunteers are normally placed in programs serving the lower classifications of the various categories of play.

In general, the four countries give mass stream ice hockey low priority in the allocation of resources, a situation which appears to dictate the possibilities which mass participation programs might realize for their participants. Mass stream programs may function as an environment for nurturing the beginner prior to an attempt at elite stream programming; as a second chance opportunity or haven for re-grouping forces for those participants selected out of the elite stream; or as an environment for participation by those players who do not or cannot aspire to elite stream programs. The lower classifications of the categories of play in Sweden and Canada appear to function in all three ways. Soviet and Czechoslovakian mass programming seems to accommodate all three functions, but because of the disparity between the two streams it appears to be a difficult task for a boy to move from the mass to the elite stream in normal circumstances.

In summary it seems that all the countries agree on the necessity and desirability of programming for mass participation but the crunch comes in allocating available resources. Priority of allocation normally seems to be given to elite development programming.

SOME NOTEWORTHY FEATURES OF THE FOUR ICE HOCKEY SYSTEMS

The intent of this section is not to reiterate the notable aspects, problems and issues which are discussed in some detail in the four area studies. Reference to these ideas will be made briefly in the context of presenting an abridged synthesis of the noteworthy features.

Overall, there seem to be many more shared concepts and features than unique or peculiar concepts or features in the ice hockey systems of the four countries. International competitions, symposia, study exchanges and other forms of interaction have evidently encouraged cultural diffusion and cross-fertilization of ideas to the point where national practices reflect many "foreign" influences. Two related factors contributing to this global tendency are presumed to be the basic nature of the game and the requirements for successful competition in the international arena of representative sport. The European nations appear to share many of the developments in the game and features related to the development process in ice hockey, while Canada tends to be more isolated and out of the mainstream of international developments.

Sweden, Czechoslovakia and the Soviet Union appear to share at least the following features: sports club delivery system; extensive use of dryland training; emphasis on training sessions; excellence in technical preparation; use of unit concepts; emphasis on a style of play and conceptualization of ice hockey featuring continuous movement, interchange of position, spatial and situational relationships, tactical preparation, generally clean play; reliance upon special schools and trainers to teach basic skill-techniques to beginners and specialized aspects of the game such as goaltending; primary identification with international competition; widespread ball hockey play by children; linkage of research and practice; varying but general emphasis upon development of elite players; and extensive exchange of ideas.

The mainstream of Canadian ice hockey does not seem to share any of the foregoing features, with the possible exception of the emphasis upon elite development and ball hockey play. On the other hand, the Canadian ice hockey system appears to present the following contrasts with the European systems: game play as basis for development; emphasis upon a style of play based upon positions and lanes and aggressive play which sometimes becomes problematical; a delivery system leading to professional play; reliance upon private enterprise; and exclusive use of volunteer trainers and ice hockey functionaries.

The period of introspection in Canada since 1972 appears to have generated a groundswell of innovation, experimentation and overall diversity in programming. Special conditions and rules for competition have been introduced to overcome perceived difficulties with the former approach to ice hockey. Special rules in regard to playing time for participants, equipment (for example, curved sticks) and game conditions (for example, body checking) have been introduced in Canada. Sweden and the USSR have evidently not introduced any special rules into children's ice hockey, whereas some experimentation with equal playing time has been done in Czechoslovakia.

Some ideas and innovations, while not entirely unique or peculiar to the particular country, seem to be noteworthy features of the respective ice hockey systems. The following features seem worthy of mention: Sweden--role of volunteers, *TV Pucken*, special cup competitions, training camps, *Teknikmarket* and dryland training tactical sessions; Czechoslovakia--predictive testing and early identification of athletic ability, full-time trainers, extensive research activity and use of research results, unified development plan and efficient and pervasive leadership development plan; Soviet Union--role and influence of Anatoli Tarasov, "hot-house" development of relatively few players, predictive testing and screening, role of parents' committee, Golden Puck Tournament, Golden Stick skill evaluation competition, television programming on ice hockey player and leadership development, and handicapped competition for children; and Canada--omnipresence and pervasiveness of ice hockey in society, quantity and quality of facilities, diversity and experimentation in programming, role of parents and leadership development programming for volunteers.

Much commonality seems to be present among the four countries in regard to critical issues and problems in children's ice hockey organization and development. The major issues in children's ice hockey which are shared concerns seem to be the following: resolving the optimal age for initiating ice hockey training for children; resolving the type and extent of training and competition which is appropriate to young developing players; resolving the subsequent long-range effects of early specialization, intensive training and/or extensive game schedules upon young, developing children; resolving the extent to which adult-initiated structure, organization and training and game programming should be undertaken by young boys; resolving the appropriateness of certain types of specialized training such as interval training and weight training for young, developing children; resolving the nature and application of the selection process and early identification of ice hockey ability; and resolving the priority in resource allocation to the development route for a few players in the elite ice hockey stream and to the participation route for many participants in the mass ice hockey stream.

In addition to the foregoing concerns there appear to be some issues which primarily concern individual countries. In Sweden, considerable discussion has centered upon resolving the soundest method of developing basic skill-techniques and theoretical knowledges and resolving the priority in scheduling adult ice hockey and children's ice hockey. The major issue peculiar to Czechoslovakia seemed to be concern that standardized and rationalized expectations (through the state curriculum guide and leadership development programs) were creating stereotyped play and players. In the Soviet Union a unique concern centered upon the appropriateness of club sports schools, Children's and Youth's Sports Schools and, particularly, residential or sports boarding schools. The singular Canadian issues seemed to be the following: resolution of the general or overall direction to be charted in the Canadian ice hockey system; and resolution of the appropriate program objectives, style of play and philosophy for minor ice hockey.

Obviously the issues outlined may be perceived as problems depending upon the viewpoint of the viewer. Closely related, and additional to, the potentially problematic issues outlined are the following apparently common problems in children's ice hockey: lack of facilities, lack of trained leaders and lack of opportunities to play, particularly for less-gifted children. In addition, officials in the Soviet Union appear concerned about the need for more equipment and supplies to meet the waiting list of boys wanting to participate in ice hockey. In Canada some unique problems seem to include: program objectives and an ice hockey milieu which seems to be inordinately concerned with winning; not enough instruction and development of the basic skill-techniques; and inappropriate role models, style of play and leadership filtering down from professional ice hockey.[19]

There appear to be a few major trends in the organization and development of ice hockey during childhood. The most notable seems to be the global trend towards earlier identification, selection, specialization and training of prospective ice hockey players. Related to this trend appears to be an overall intensification of training and rationalization of the development process for young ice hockey players.

In general, there seems to be more concern in all countries directed towards the organization and development of children's ice hockey, apparently in the larger context of attempting to improve the foundation so that benefits will accrue at the top levels of play.

CHAPTER VI FOOTNOTES

[1] Hart Cantelon, Jr., "The Historical Development of Ice Hockey in the Soviet Union" (unpublished paper presented at Learned Society Conference, History of Sport Section, University of Saskatchewan, Saskatoon: June 24-25, 1975), pp. 1, 2.

[2] Antonin Himl, "30 Years of Building Socialism," *Czechoslovak Life* (5:1975), p. 23; Luis Bisquertt, "Physical Education in Czechoslovakia," *Physical Education Around the World*, ed. William Johnson (Indianapolis: Phi Epsilon Kappa, 1973), Monograph Number 6, pp. 17-31; and Russell L. Sturzebecker, "Physical Education and Sport in Russia," *Physical Education Around the World,* ed. William Johnson (Indianapolis: Phi Epsilon Kappa, 1971), Monograph Number 5, pp. 69-82.

[3] Stan Svensson, *The Swedish Sports Federation* (Stockholm: The Swedish Sports Federation, 1971), p. 5.

[4] Hedrick Smith, *The Russians* (New York: Quadrangle/The New York Times Book Co., 1976), pp. 104ff.

[5] Ice hockey teams represent armed forces bases in the same manner as any other community in Canada. There is some labor union sponsorship of teams but not to any extent comparable to business or industrial concerns. Students attending post-secondary educational institutions may play ice hockey under the auspices of intercollegiate or intramural programs, but student associations do not tend to organize or sponsor these programs.

[6] It is estimated by the writer that there are at least six to seven thousand natural ice hockey rinks in Canada, in addition to other-sized natural ice surfaces, which may be used for skating, shinny or ice hockey "games." This number seems disproportionately high in relation to the number of playing surfaces in the other countries. The rank order for outdoor natural ice surfaces is estimated to be Canada, the USSR, Sweden and then Czechoslovakia. Sweden has indicated 141 regulation outdoor natural ice playing rinks, so a significant gap seems evident in comparison with Canada. It is expected that there are more outdoor rinks in the Soviet Union; however the writer does not think that the number of regulation-sized rinks begins to approach the Canadian total. Czechoslovakia has very few outdoor rinks because of the climate. Stalyarov, Professor, Lenin Central Institute (Moscow: May 28, 1975) estimated the number of outdoor playing surfaces at 10,000. The writer downplays this number as including ice surfaces without regard to size of playing surface or amenities for regulation game play.

[7] The compromise solution of cost and reliability in various weather conditions was stressed by officials of both the Swedish Ice Hockey Federation and the Czechoslovakian Ice Hockey Federation.

[8] In effect, both lack of international success and persistent problems in relations between amateur and professional vested interests encouraged the Canadian government to enter the sphere of activity of the Canadian Amateur Hockey Association and establish Hockey Canada. Hockey Canada was established as an umbrella organization to coordinate relations between the C.A.H.A. and the National Hockey League and to provide leadership in ice hockey development in areas which were largely ignored in the operation of the C.A.H.A. (minor ice hockey, leadership development and international ice hockey).

[9] Junior professional interests are in many instances opposite to minor ice hockey interests and to this point the junior professional interests have comprised one, if not the major reason, for the existence of the C.A.H.A.; that is to service the talent pool needs of professional ice hockey in Canada.

[10] An increasing number of players are choosing to pursue a combined education and ice hockey alternative to playing junior professional ice hockey. The majority of these student-athletes play for United States colleges on scholarships and hope to obtain a college degree while readying themselves for invitation into professional ice hockey. Scholarships and financial aid, although increasing in amount in Canada, are not comparable to the aid offered in the United States.

[11] As seems to be the case in many areas, the network of personal relations, status and power appears to be important in determining some of the players who survive. Phenomena such as coach's sons, friend's sons, powerful or influential people's sons and so on appear to operate in all four countries. Included in the principle of natural selection and survival of the fittest, then, is the overlay which is based upon the personal network and accommodation of power and influence.

[12] The participation ratios were calculated by using the "Estimated Total Numbers of Players" category. If the "Number of Registered Players" is used then the following results are obtained: Sweden--1:40; Canada--1:68.3; Czechoslovakia--1:196; and the Soviet Union--1:413.7.

[13] According to the Czechoslovakian Ice Hockey Federation there are 22,285 senior players registered in Czechoslovakia. The majority of these players, with the exception of Elite Federal and some National League players, should be considered as members of the mass ice hockey stream. Illustration 6.2 is deceptive because it gives the impression that Czechoslovakia has the greatest number of senior players. Numerically, however, there are more players at the nineteen and older age bracket in Canada and the Soviet Union and probably in Sweden as well.

At the senior level Sweden is also represented in a deceptive manner. In reality, only *Elitserien* and selected Division I players are in the elite stream and capable of being considered for representative international play.

[14] Information supplied by Mr. Lennart Skördåker, Youth Development Consultant, Swedish Ice Hockey Federation (Stockholm: October 3, 1974) and reiterated by other ice hockey officials in Sweden at other times.

[15] Documentation of the testing of four year-olds is contained in *Teoriya i Praktika Fizicheskoi Kul 'tury* (No. 1: 1977), pp. 40-43. Information relayed to the writer in January 12, 1977, correspondence from Mr. Hart Cantelon, Queen's University, who is a leading authority on Soviet sport. Cantelon cautions on overextending this information because of the lack of research facilities, time and inclination of ice hockey officials and others. *TsSKA* appears to be the best-endowed sports club in the USSR, consequently features of their programming would presumably remain as ideals only to other less-endowed sports clubs.

[16] The contents of Tables 2.6, 3.6, 4.5, 5.10 and other tables in earlier chapters will not be reprinted in Chapter VI. Reference to earlier tables will be made while attempting to provide appropriate synthesis of general comments on similarities and differences which seem to be present among the four countries.

[17] Players in the normal Canadian style of play are admonished to play their "positions" (that is; left wing, left defense and so on) and to stay in their "lanes" (particularly forwards and most particularly during defensive play).

[18] Players influenced by this conceptualization of the game are taught to relate to their teammates and opponents spatially and situationally. For example: relating spatially may involve principles such as staying spread out and penetrating offensively at different levels; and relating situationally may involve applying the spatial principles into capitalizing on situation play such as the two-on-one, two-on-two. Players seem to be encouraged to relate to the puck by flowing into spaces on the ice which will make the most of an offensive siutation and, conversely, prevent as much as possible in a defensive situation.

[19] Although these problems seem to be broached from the reformist viewpoint it is important to note that those holding a traditional viewpoint at least partially agree on the problems.

CHAPTER VII

SOME CONCLUDING STATEMENTS

The synthesis in the previous chapter seems to present a number and range of summary statements which could be reiterated on pain of redundance.

Each country appears to reflect the operation of a unique constellation of variables. This collage of influences, both socio-cultural and ecological, apparently shapes the ice hockey systems and the development process which operates within each system. Although the ice hockey systems share many commonalities in ideology and practice, each presents a unique amalgam which highlights the differential operation of the various influences.

Three influences are perceived to be the most influential determinants within the host of variables impinging upon the organization and development of ice hockey during childhood. These are societal valuation, resources available for ice hockey programming, and leadership in ice hockey programming. The operation of these influences is presumed to have the greatest impact on the nature of the development process in a particular country.

The Swedish, Czechoslovakian and Soviet ice hockey systems seem to share more features with each other than they do with the Canadian ice hockey system. Key contrasts between the European nations and Canada seem to be evident in the different conceptualizations of the game of ice hockey and in the different theories or models for rationalizing the development process. Despite the perceived differences there has been a discernible trend towards lessening the polarization and significance of the contrasts. With the recent increase in Canadian participation in international ice hockey competition, Canada seems to be retreating from its position of relative isolation.

Worthwhile lessons are seen in the study of each of the ice hockey systems and their respective development processes. Although the ultimate end of the development process seems common, each country provides a societal overlay to the process and the product. Ice hockey evidently has found a favorable environment in the sporting culture of all four countries. This is presumed to occur because ice hockey, with other human endeavor, performs a functional role in the respective societies. The development process during childhood is seen to fit into the total delivery system which serves instrumental ends for each of the four nations.

The development of elite ice hockey players receives priority in resource allocation in all four countries. This occurrence is assumed to make manifest the societal valuation and also to signal the more vital role that elite development programming seems to fulfill in achieving instrumental ends when compared with mass participation programming.

Developing ice hockey players in Sweden appear to have a favorable opportunity to pursue ice hockey supported by an encouraging valuation, a development program backed by considerable societal resource, and an approach to ice hockey which seems to emphasize individual technical competence, rational development through extensive training and serious pursuit of excellence.

Czechoslovakia, despite facing obstacles such as climate, limited availability of resources and relatively small numbers of ice hockey players, has remained competitive in international ice hockey competition. A large measure of this success seems to be based upon thorough, efficient and systematic development of available talent through concentration of resources upon elite stream athletes; systematic and pervasive leadership development; and an overall rationalization of the development process.

The development process during childhood in the Soviet Union seems to be very restrictive and limited in opportunity, characterized by intensive training for the promising players, and presumably urged into such circumstances by an overall lack of resources and an emerging state of development.

Canadian children participating in ice hockey seem favored by unparalleled resources and opportunities for participation or training in a differentiated development process primarily based upon a games-play model. Considerable experimentation, innovation and controversy have arisen recently, apparently encouraging considerable diversity in programming.

All four countries share in what seem to be significant and wide-ranging trends toward earlier identification, selection, specialization and training of prospective ice hockey players; an intensification of training and rationalization of the development process; and direction of more interest and attention towards the organization and development of children's ice hockey, apparently in the larger concern for effecting ultimate benefits in the international arena.

SOME RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

During the formative stages of this study several notions presented invitations to dawdle and speculate, some of which have remained as gnawing questions or attractive tangents for speculation, becoming, therefore, possible candidates for further study.

1. Replication of this study, or an improved version, through direct observation of other programs in other centers of population in the four countries.
2. Investigation of the organization and development of ice hockey during the youth age period (age thirteen through nineteen) in the four countries.
3. Investigation of the congruence between theory (based upon the Czechoslovakian and Soviet curriculum guides) and practice (based on direct observation of programs) in the organization and development of ice hockey.
4. Investigation of the interdependence of ice hockey and society in the four countries.
5. Investigation of the issues present in the four countries, which include the following:
   a. investigating the optimal age for initiating ice hockey training for children;

b. investigating the type and extent of training and competition which seems appropriate for young, developing players;

c. investigating the immediate and long-range effects of early specialization, intensive training and extensive competition;

d. investigating the effects of adult-initiated structure, organization and training and game programming upon young, developing children;

e. investigating the appropriateness and long-range effects of certain types of specialized training, such as interval training and weight training on young developing children; and

f. investigating the reliability of procedures for early identification and predictive testing for athletic ability and ice hockey ability.

6. Empirical investigation of the relative efficiency and effects of the skill development model and the games-play model.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

A. BOOKS

Almstead, John. *Hockey Development Guide: 8 to 18*. Ottawa: Canadian Amateur Hockey Association, 1973.

Andrews, Ron (ed.). *1975-76 National Hockey League Guide*. Montreal: National Hockey League, 1975.

Bazunov, B. *Knights of the Ice Rink*. Moscow: *Fizkultura i Sport*, 1969.

Bereday, George. *Comparative Method in Education*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1964.

Canadian Amateur Hockey Association. *1977 CAHA Hockey Handbook*. Ottawa: CAHA, May, 1976.

________. *Guide for Minor Hockey Coaches*. Ottawa: Canadian Amateur Hockey Association, 1973.

Caswell, "Bing" and John R. Life. *The Fundamentals of Ice Hockey*. Midland: Midland Press, 1950.

Conacher, Brian. *Hockey in Canada: The Way It Is*. Richmond Hill: Simon & Schuster, 1971.

Crown Life of Canada. *Helpful Hints for Hockey Coaches*. Toronto: Crown Life of Canada, 1968.

Dornberg, John. *The New Tsars*. Garden City, N.Y.: Doubleday and Co., Inc., 1972.

Dryden, Ken, Cec Eaves and John Macfarlane. *Let's Play Better Hockey*. Toronto: Prosport Productions, Ltd., 1973.

Eaves, Cecil in J. Alex Murray. *Sport or Athletics: A North American Dilemma*. Windsor: Canadian-American Seminar, 1973.

Esayev, A. *Golden Puck*. Moscow: *Molodiya Gvardiya*, 1973.

Eskenazi, Gerald. *A Thinking Man's Guide to Pro Hockey*. New York: E. P. Dutton, 1972.

Feifer, George. *Our Motherland: and Other Ventures in Russian Reportage*. New York: The Viking Press, 1974.

Fisher, Douglas in Ken Dryden. *Face-Off at the Summit*. Boston: Little, Brown and Co., 1973.

Fizkultura i Sport. *We Are 50 Million*. Moscow: *Fizkultura i Sport*, 1974.

Fowler, H. W., and F. G. Fowler (eds.). *The Concise Oxford Dictionary of Current English*. 4th edition. Oxford: The University Press, 1958.

Goodhart, Philip, and Chris Chataway. *War Without Weapons*. London: W. H. Allen, 1968.

Gregory, Jim. *Tips on Team Play*. Toronto: Al Stewart Enterprises, Ltd., 1967.

Hewitt, Foster. *Hockey Night in Canada*. Toronto: The Ryerson Press, 1961.

Hockey Development Council. *National Coaches' Certification Program: Level 1 Manual*. Ottawa: Canadian Amateur Hockey Association, 1974.

________. *National Coaches' Certification Program: Level 3 Manual*. Ottawa: Canadian Amateur Hockey Association, 1974.

Kabel, Bob. *Hockey Coaches Clinic*. Toronto: Labatt's Breweries of Canada, Ltd., 1974.

Kidd, Bruce, and John Macfarlane. *The Death of Hockey*. Toronto: New Press, 1972.

Kostka, Vladimir. *Moderní Hokej*. Prague: *Olympia Praha*, 1971.

Lariviere, Georges. *Hockey Beginner's Program*. Ottawa: Canadian Amateur Hockey Association, 1973.

L'Heureux, Bill (ed.). *Beginning Hockey*. Ottawa: The Queen's Printer, 1963.

________. *Coach's Manual--Hockey*. Ottawa: The Queen's Printer, 1963.

________. *How to Play Better Hockey*. Ottawa: The Queen's Printer, 1963.

Lorenz, Konrad. *On Aggression*. London: Methuen and Co. Ltd., 1967.

Ludwig, Jack. *Hockey Night in Moscow*. Richmond Hill: Simon & Schuster, 1974.

Matiowski, Buck. *Dynamic Skating*. Ottawa: Canadian Amateur Hockey Association, 1973.

Marshall, James, et al. *Russian Hockey Packet*. Guelph: Can-Am Ltd., 1974.

Meeker, Howie. *Howie Meeker's Hockey Basics.* Scarborough: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1973.

________. *More Hockey Basics from Howie Meeker.* Scarborough: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1975.

Methodology Cabinet, Central Committee on Physical Culture and Sport Attached to the Council of Ministers of the U.S.S.R. Hockey Programs for Children's--Youth's Sports Schools. Moscow: Methodology Cabinet, 1971.

Murray, J. Alex (ed.). *Sport or Athletics: A North American Dilemma.* Windsor: Canadian-American Seminar, 1973.

Orlick, Terry, and Cal Botterill. *Every Kid Can Win.* Chicago: Nelson-Hall, 1975.

Ryzhkov, Dmitry. *Our Hockey.* Moscow: *Fizkultura i Sport*, 1972.

Šifařik, Vladimir; B. Jauris; V. Kostka and B. Zachová. *Teorie A Methodika Bruslenī. Praha: Stātni Pedagogickē Nakladatelstvi,* 1972.

Smith, Hedrick. *The Russians.* New York: Quadrangle/The New York Times Book Co., 1976.

Smith, Michael D., and Frederic Diamond. "Career Mobility in Professional Hockey," *Canadian Sport: Sociological Perspectives.* ed. Richard S. Gruneau and John G. Albinson. Don Mills: Addison-Wesley (Canada) Ltd., 1976.

Spassky, O. D. *Hockey.* Moscow: *Fizkultura i Sport*, 1974.

Speak, M. A., and V. H. Ambler. *Physical Education, Recreation and Sport in the U.S.S.R.* Lancaster: Centre for Physical Education, University of Lancaster, 1976.

Svenska Ishockeyförbundet. Hockey Boken. Stockholm: *Svenska Ishockeyförbundet*, 1974.

________. *Hockey Boken.* Stockholm: *Svenska Ishockeyförbundet*, 1975.

________. *Steg 1 (Grundkors) I Ishockey.* Stockholm: *Svenska Ishockeyförbundet*, 1974.

Svensson, Stan. *The Swedish Sports Federation.* Stockholm: The Swedish Sports Federation, 1971.

Tarasov, Anatoli. *Road to Olympus.* Toronto: Griffin House, 1967.

________. *Tarasov's Hockey Technique*. Toronto: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1974.

Tintéra, Jaroslav. *The Influence of Long-Term Ice Hockey Training on the Development of the Organism and on Performance in 11-18 Year Old Boys*. Prague: Universita Karlova, 1963.

Tutko, Thomas, and William Bruns. *Winning is Everything and Other American Myths*. New York: Macmillan Publishing Co., Inc., 1976.

Vanek, Miroslav, and Bryant Cratty. *Psychology and the Superior Athlete*. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1970.

Webb, Harry. "Professionalization of Attitudes Toward Play Among Adolescents," *Aspects of Contemporary Sports Sociology*. Chicago: The Athletic Institute, 1969.

Wilson, Renate. *For the Love of Sport*. Vancouver: J. J. Douglas, Ltd., 1975.

Welt-und Europa Meisterschaft Host Committee. WM Program. Munich: Deutscher Ishockeybund, 1975.

B. PERIODICALS

Alexeyev, F. "Russian Hockey: Speed and Manoeuvre," *Soviet Union Today* (February, 1972), 44-46.

Bisquertt, Luis. "Physical Education in Czechoslovakia," *Physical Education Around the World*, ed. William Johnson. Indianapolis: Phi Epsilon Kappa, 1973.

Hansen, Hal. "Plea to Save Thousands of Hockey Players Who Want to Enjoy the Sport," *Canadian Coach* (July, 1972), 7.

Himl, Antonin. "Interview of the Month," *Czechoslovak Life* (Number 7, 1972), 14, 15.

________. "30 Years of Building Socialism," *Caechoslovak Life* (Number 5, 1975), 23.

Juckes, Gordon. "The C.A.H.A.: What It Is, What It Does," *Hockey: 1975-76 Review*, ed. Larry F. Skinner (1976), 34, 35.

Kirillyuk, Vladimir. "Games All Look Forward To," *Soviet Union Today*, Ottawa: The U.S.S.R. Embassy in Canada, (August, 1972), 43.

________. "Ice Hockey Summit: The Games Were Great," *Soviet Union Today*, Ottawa: The U.S.S.R. Embassy in Canada (December, 1972), 40.

Kome, Penny. "Fun and Games," *The Canadian Magazine* (December 25, 1976), 18, 19.

Ludwig, Jack. "Ken Dryden, Hockey's Lonely Forerunner," *Maclean's*, (February, 1973), 79.

Mortimore, G. E. "What's Happened to Hockey?" reprinted from *The Globe and Mail*, (1964).

Nixon, Howard L. "Growing Up with Hockey in Canada," *International Review of Sport Sociology*, Vol. 1 (11), (1976), 37-48.

Roberts, Glyn. "Physical Education in Russia," *Physical Education Around the World*, ed. William Johnson. Indianapolis: Phi Epsilon Kappa, 1966.

Robertson, John. "Minor Hockey: Playing for Fun Not for Keeps," *Maclean's* (October, 1974), 108.

Sturzebecker, Russell. "Physical Education and Sport in Russia," *Physical Education Around the World*. ed. William Johnson. Indianapolis: Phi Epsilon Kappa, 1971.

Teoriya i Praktika fizicheskoi Kul 'tury (Number 1, 1977). (Referred to in personal correspondence from Hart Cantelon, Jr.).

Vaz, Edmund W. "What Price Victory? An Analysis of Minor Hockey League Players' Attitudes Towards Winning," *International Review of Sport Sociology*, Vol. 2 (9), (1974), 33-53.

Weber, Hanuš. "A Lot is Too Little," *Czechoslovak Life* (March, 1967), 22, 23.

C. BY-LAWS, MINUTES AND REPORTS OF ASSOCIATIONS, COMMITTEES OR GOVERNMENTS

Alberta Amateur Hockey Association. *Constitution and By-Laws*. Calgary: Alberta Amateur Hockey Association. 1976-77.

Alberta Department of Youth Hockey Study Committee. *Final Report of the Alberta Department of Youth Hockey Study Committee.* Edmonton: Department of Youth, Government of the Province of Alberta, November 15, 1967.

Canadian Amateur Hockey Association. *Minutes: 59th Annual Meeting.* Penticton, May 22-27, 1976, 81.

Downey, L. W., and Associates. *The Report of an Inquiry into the Rights of Individuals in Amateur Sports (Hockey).* Edmonton: Department of Culture, Youth and Recreation, Government of Alberta, July, 1973.

________. *Addendum to the Report of an Inquiry into the Rights of Individuals in Amateur Sports (Hockey).* Edmonton: Department of Culture, Youth and Recreation, Government of Alberta, December 1973.

Hockey Study Committee of the National Advisory Council on Fitness and Amateur Sport. *Minor-Age Hockey in Canada.* Fredericton: Department of National Health and Welfare, Part 2, 1973.

________. *The Report on Amateur Hockey in Canada.* Ottawa: Department of National Health and Welfare, January, 1967.

McMurtry, William R. *Investigation and Inquiry into Violence in Amateur Hockey.* Toronto: Ministry of Community and Social Services, Province of Ontario, August 21, 1974.

Meagher, G. *Federal Government Hockey Study Report, Amateur Hockey in Canada, a Blueprint for the 70's and Beyond.* Ottawa: Department of National Health and Welfare, 1971.

Saskatchewan Hockey Task Force. *Final Report.* Regina: Department of Culture and Youth, Government of Saskatchewan, April 17, 1974.

Smith, Gary. *Edmonton Metropolitan Hockey Association: 1975-76 Annual Report.* Edmonton: July, 1976.7.

D. UNPUBLISHED MANUSCRIPTS

Can-Am Group. "The Organization and Development of Ice Hockey in the U.S.S.R." Guelph: Can-Am Group, 1974. (Mimeographed.)

Cantelon, Hart, Jr. "The Historical Development of Ice Hockey in the Soviet Union." Paper presented at the Learned Society Conference, History of Sport Section, University of Saskatchewan, Saskatoon, June 24-25, 1975.

Concordia University. "Summary Notes from Lectures of 1975 Bio-Phys. Ed. 620Z Course: Sport, Physical Culture and Ice Hockey in the U.S.S.R." Montreal: Concordia University, 1975. (Mimeographed.)

ČSTV. "Unified System for Ice Hockey." Prague: ČSTV, In Press, 1976.

Kingston, George. "Survey of Minor Ice Hockey Programs for Children in Calgary." Calgary. (Mimeographed.)

"Golden Puck Prize." Article prepared for Concordia Course, Moscow, 1975. (Mimeographed.)

McDonald, Dennis. "Report on Hockey Development in the U.S.S.R. and Czechoslovakia." June 15, 1973. (Mimeographed.)

________. "Youth Development in the Soviet Union and Czechoslovakia." Ottawa: Canadian Amateur Hockey Association, 1973. (Mimeographed.)

Renwick, Gordon, Robert Hindmarch and Dennis McDonald. "Hockey Development Council: Hockey Development Proposal, 1976-1981." Ottawa: Canadian Amateur Hockey Association, January 28, 1976. (Mimeographed.)

Riordan, James. "Sport and Physical Education in the Soviet Union." Unpublished paper, University of Bradford, 1975.

E. INTERVIEWS, PERSONAL CORRESPONDENCE AND LECTURES

Beveridge, William. Farewell address as Director of the London School of Economics, June 24, 1937.

Boork, Leif. Personal interview. Stockholm, October 9, 1974.

Bouchard, Andre. CBC Radio interview. November 10, 1976.

Brusanovsky, Alexander. Remarks from lecture to Concordia Course: "Organization of Sport in the U.S.S.R." Moscow, June 11, 1975.

Bukač, Ludek. Personal interviews. Prague, January to March, 1975. Calgary, July, 1977.

Cantelon, Hart, Jr. Personal correspondence to writer. January 12, 1977.

Church, Jack. Personal interview. Stockholm, November, 1974.

Galumasov, Nikolai. Personal interview. Moscow, May 31, 1976.

Koloskov, Vasilii. Remarks from lecture to Concordia Course: "Planning Throughout the Year." Moscow, June 4, 1975.

Korolev, Yuri. Remarks from lecture to Concordia Course: "History of Soviet Ice Hockey." Moscow, May 28, 1975.

Kostka, Vladimir. Personal interview. Prague, 1975.

Larsson, Kjell. Personal interview. Stockholm, June, 1976.

Lebedev, I. Personal interview. Leningrad, December 10, 1974.

Lemire, Jean-Marc. Personal correspondence to writer. September 7, 1976.

McDonald, Dennis. Personal correspondence to writer. August 27, 1976.

McIntosh, Ken. Personal interview. Calgary, November, 1976.

Moros, Roman. Remarks from lecture to Concordia Course: "Dryland Training in Ice Hockey." Moscow, June 1, 1976.

Morozov, Yuri. Remarks from lecture to Concordia Course: "Youth Hockey in the U.S.S.R." Moscow, June 11, 1975.

Nilsson, Börje. Personal interview. Stockholm, October 10, 1974.

Nilsson, Stig. Personal interview. Stockholm, October 1, 1974.

Sandlin, Tommy. Personal interview. Stockholm, November 24, 1974.

Šifařik, Vladimir. Personal interviews. Prague, February, March, June, 1975.

Skördåker, Lennart. Personal interview. Stockholm, October 3, 1974.

Stalyarov, P. Remarks from lecture to Concordia Course: "System of Physical Culture in the U.S.S.R." Moscow, May 28, 1975.

Tarasov, Anatoli. Remarks from lecture to Concordia Course: "Comparison of Canadian and Soviet Hockey." Moscow, June 7, 1976.

Tišý, V. Personal interview. Prague, February 1, 1975.

Tuzik, Igor. Remarks from lecture to Concordia Course: "Youth Hockey," Moscow, June 11, 1975.

Vanek, Miroslav. Personal interviews. Calgary, July, 1977.

Walker, Peter. Personal interview. Moscow, December, 1974.

Wallin, Bengt. Personal interview. Stockholm, October 25, 1974.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A. TABLES OF OBSERVATION OF ICE HOCKEY SYSTEMS

TABLE I--OBSERVATIONS OF SWEDISH ICE HOCKEY*'

International matches	16	International training sessions	9
Division I matches	15	Division I training sessions	15
Division II, III matches	8	Division II, III training sessions	13
Youth hockey matches	6	Youth hockey training sessions	12
Childhood hockey matches	11	Childhood hockey training sessions	26
TV Pucken matches	5	Goaler schools training sessions	4
		Hockey schools training sessions	8
		Dryland training sessions	15
		Theory-Tactics training sessions	1

* Numerous observations of informal, recreational, participant-organized ice hockey sessions were also undertaken.

' This table includes only direct observations completed in Sweden. Numerous other matches and training sessions have been observed outside of Sweden (but involving Swedish players and teams), but these figures are not included in this table.

TABLE II--OBSERVATIONS OF SOVIET ICE HOCKEY*'

International matches	6	International training sessions	3
Division I matches	2	Division I training sessions	4
Youth hockey matches	2	Youth hockey training sessions	6
Childhood hockey matches	3	Childhood hockey training sessions	24
		Goaler schools training sessions	4
		Hockey schools training sessions	3
		Dryland training sessions	19

*'Same notes apply to Soviet Ice Hockey as indicated in Table I for Swedish Ice Hockey.

TABLE III--OBSERVATIONS OF CZECHOSLOVAKIAN ICE HOCKEY*'

International matches	15	International training sessions	4
Elite League matches	7	Elite League training sessions	11
National League matches	1	National League training sessions	2
Youth hockey matches	11	Youth hockey training sessions	9
Childhood hockey matches	9	Childhood hockey training sessions	22
		Goalers school training sessions	4
		Skating school training sessions	2
		Dryland training sessions	36
		Hockey school training sessions	1
		Team selection and screening sessions	1

*'Same notes apply to Czechoslovakian Ice Hockey as indicated in Table I for Swedish Ice Hockey.

TABLE IV--OBSERVATIONS OF CANADIAN MINOR ICE HOCKEY+

Youth hockey matches	60+	Youth hockey training sessions	30+
Childhood hockey matches	60+	Childhood hockey training sessions	40+
		Hockey school training sessions	10+
		Goalers school training sessions	4+
		Skating school training sessions	8+

+ Notes * and ' as outlined for Swedish Ice Hockey are incorporated in the perspective for Canadian Ice Hockey, but are superseded by the writer's involvement in Canadian ice hockey since 1962, wherein coaching and teaching minor ice hockey at the Tiny Mite, Midget and Senior High School levels, as well as coaching university level amateur hockey, teaching in hockey schools, skating schools and so on, and experience and observations with adult amateur and professional ice hockey has occurred.

APPENDIX B. QUESTIONNAIRE FOR STUDY ON

"THE DEVELOPMENT OF ICE HOCKEY DURING CHILDHOOD IN CANADA"

Please answer the questions in as complete and accurate a manner as possible. If you are estimating or "guesstimating" please bracket ( ) your answer. Please RETURN THE QUESTIONNAIRE BY FRIDAY, OCTOBER 15, 1976. THANK YOU.

Please indicate or estimate the following:

1. The total number--estimated or actual--of ice hockey players who are playing hockey in your jurisdictional area (that is, the total number of players, including both registered and unregistered players):

   a. during the 1974-75 ice hockey season? ....

   b. during the 1975-76 ice hockey season? ....

   c. in school hockey in 1974-75 hockey season? ....

   d. in school hockey in 1975-76 hockey season? ....

   (If there are players in school hockey in your area, please indicate or estimate the number of boys who are involved:)

   i. who are twelve years of age and younger? ....

   ii. who are thirteen years of age and older? ....

2. A breakdown of the total number of participants at each age level and category of play (that is, the total number of players including both registered and unregistered players). Please name the various age levels--play categories.

Age Level - Play Category	Number in 1974-75	Number in 1975-76

3. The number and type of facilities which are used for ice hockey in your jurisdictional area:

   a. indoor arena with artifical ice? ....

   b. indoor arena with natural ice? ....

   c. outdoor rink with artificial ice? ....

   d. outdoor rink with natural ice? ....

   e. other (please specify)? ....

4. An indication of the number (or percentage) of:

   a. municipal ice hockey facilities? ....

   b. private ice hockey facilities? ....

5. An indication of the number and type of:

   a. summer hockey schools? ....

   b. participants in summer hockey schools?

      i. who are twelve years of age and younger? ....

      ii. who are thirteen years of age and older? ....

   c. special programs for teaching children to skate or to play ice hockey?

6. Any information regarding innovative, experimental or model programs in children's (ages four to twelve years) and youth (ages thirteen years and older) ice hockey in your jurisdictional area. Please indicate as many particulars as you can about the site, the concept or type of program, the number of participants involved, the name and address of leaders or responsible individuals, and as many other specifics as you deem important.

7. Any information regarding ice hockey programs for children's (aged four to twelve years) or youth (ages thirteen years and older) which have special rules and regulations for play or participation. That is, special rules for equipment, size of the ice surface, playing conditions (for example; no body checking, no goaltender or position, no slap shots, and so on), organization of players (for example; equal ice time, homogeneous grouping of same-ability players, and so on), or any other facet related to ice hockey. Please indicate as many particulars as you can about the site, the concept or type of program, the number of participants involved, the name and address of leaders or responsible officials and as many other specifics as you deem important.

8. Please indicate if I can be of service to you regarding the study which I have briefly outlined in this questionnaire and the accompanying letter.

APPENDIX C. OPERATIONAL FRAMEWORK FOR JUXTAPOSING, ANALYZING AND COMPARING THE ORGANIZATION AND DEVELOPMENT OF ICE HOCKEY DURING CHILDHOOD IN THE SELECTED COUNTRIES

A. Influences Upon the Organization of Ice Hockey (and Sport) in the Country.

1. Socio-Cultural Considerations
    - a. societal setting for ice hockey; role of ice hockey (and sport) in society; philosophical influences; purpose(s) for sport; underlying motivations for participation in ice hockey (and sport)
    - b. historical background; influences and outside relationships
    - c. role of government; political and governmental influences
    - d. role of selected institutions
        - i. education
        - ii. youth organizations and associations
        - iii. industrial, commercial organizations; labor unions
    - e. economic considerations; technologic and material culture factors; facilities and equipment
    - f. social organization considerations; role of community forces; sports clubs; role of participants and family
2. Ecological Considerations
    - a. geography and geographical distribution of ice hockey participation
    - b. climatic conditions

B. General Outline of Ice Hockey System.

1. Organization of Ice Hockey (and Sport) in the Country
2. Development Route in Ice Hockey in the Country
3. Relationship of Elite Ice Hockey Stream and Mass Ice Hockey Stream

C. Elite Ice Hockey Stream

1. Features

2. Development Route

a. entry age, selection process and entry conditions

b. organization and features at the various age levels

  i. master schedule, yearly schedule
  ii. frequency and number of training sessions
  iii. number and type of competitions

3. Features of Programming

4. Content of Training Program; Content of Typical Training Session

5. Model Programming

6. Leadership

7. Resources

8. General Comments

D. Mass Ice Hockey Stream

1. Features

2. Participation Route

a. entry age, selection process and entry conditions

b. organization and features at the various age levels

c. features of programming

  i. master schedule, yearly schedule
  ii. frequency and nature of participation and competition

d. content of programming

e. leadership

f. resources

g. general comments

E. Noteworthy Features

1. Special Features and Regulations

2. Trends, Change and Innovation

3. Issues

4. Problems

F. Concluding Remarks

MINOR ICE HOCKEY FOR CHILDREN IN CANADA - Study by: George Kingston
(Children aged 4 to 12 years)
Faculty of Physical Education
The University of Calgary

TEAM ______ CATEGORY OF PLAY ______ 1975-76 SEASON RECORD: Wins ____
Losses ____
Ties ____

TOTAL NUMBER OF GAMES PLAYED BY YOUR TEAM LAST SEASON? ____
* NUMBER OF LEAGUE GAMES? ____
* NUMBER OF EXHIBITION GAMES? ____
* NUMBER OF PLAY-OFF GAMES? ____ FINAL STANDING IN LEAGUE? ____

TOTAL NUMBER OF PRACTICES DURING SEASON? ____
* NUMBER OF ICE PRACTICES? ____
* NUMBER OF DRYLAND PRACTICES? ____
* NUMBER OF OTHER PRACTICES? ____
(Chalk-talk, Film, or ?)

CONDITIONS FOR PRACTICES: (Please Check ✓)
* INDOOR? ____ * OUTDOOR? ____
* ICE SHARED WITH ANOTHER TEAM? ____
* SOLE TEAM ON ICE SURFACE? ____

BASIS FOR TEAM SELECTION: (Please Check ✓)
* ABILITY IN BASIC SKILLS? ____
* ABILITY IN GAME SITUATION? ____
* ATTITUDE? ____
* PHYSICAL ATTRIBUTES? ____
* ANTICIPATED DEVELOPMENT? ____
* OTHER? (Please Specify) ____

AVERAGE LENGTH OF PRACTICE? (Please Check ✓)
* 30 Minutes ____
* 30 - 45 " ____
* 45 " ____
* 45 - 60 " ____
* 60 " ____
* 60 - 75 " ____
* 75 " ____
* 75 - 90 " ____
* 90 " ____
* Over 90 " ____

CONTENT OF TEAM PRACTICES: (Please indicate percentage of total practice time for each item)

PRACTICE ITEM:	PRE-SEASON PRACTICES: Average % of Time	PRACTICES DURING SEASON: Average % of Time
WARM UP		
SKATING SKILLS		
PUCK CONTROL SKILLS		
CHECKING SKILLS		
SITUATION PLAY (1:1,2:1,3:2)		
TEAM PLAY		
SPECIAL GAME SITUATIONS (6:5)		
SCRIMMAGE		
CONDITIONING SKATING		
OTHER (Please specify)		

SPECIAL FEATURES; UNIQUE FEATURES; NOTEWORTHY FEATURES OF YOUR PROGRAM? (That is, do you have special rules or requirements for your players?: do you plan special items in your program?: or?

COMMENTS:

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR ASSISTANCE IN COMPLETING THIS QUESTIONNAIRE. Geo. Kingston